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PROCEEDINGS OF THE CLASSICAL CONFERENCE
HELD AT ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN, MARCH 31
AND APRIL 1, 1898

THIS Conference was held under the auspices of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association, in connection with a meeting of that committee and its auxiliary committees. The time and place of meeting were chosen in response to a cordial invitation from the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, under whose auspices a similar conference was held in the Spring of 1895.¹ The object of the conference, as stated in the circulars of invitation, was "to bring together representatives of the schools, colleges; and universities in the different parts of the country for the discussion of questions pertaining to classical study and for the presentation of matters of interest to teachers of the classics." The programme was arranged by a special subcommittee of the Committee of Twelve, consisting of Professor Seymour, Chairman, and Professors Hale, Kelsey, and Charles Forster Smith.

On Wednesday, March 30, the Latin Section, consisting of the Latin subcommittee of the Committee of Twelve and the Latin Auxiliary Committee,² met in the Latin room of the University of Michigan. The entire day was spent in the consideration of suggestions received from various quarters in regard to the tentative outlines of a four-year and a six-year Latin course published in the Preliminary Report.³ As a result some modifications were made in the arrangement of these courses, which will be embodied in the final report. A brief session of the Committee of Twelve was held on the afternoon of March 31; in the forenoon of Saturday, April 2, this com-

¹ See the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for June 1895.

² See the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for June 1897, pp. 369, 370.

³ Published in the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for 1897, pp. 362-365.

mittee met with the auxiliary committees for Greek and for Latin.

The Conference extended over two days—Thursday, March 31, and Friday, April 1. The morning and afternoon sessions were held in the auditorium of Newberry Hall, the building of the Students' Christian Association. The total attendance at these sessions averaged nearly six hundred, but reached seven hundred at the joint session of the Classical Conference and Michigan Schoolmasters' Club on Friday morning. At the evening sessions, in University Hall, the attendance was even larger. On Thursday evening more than a thousand people were present, while the Recital of Ancient Music on Friday evening was listened to by fifteen or sixteen hundred. The attendance was, in fact, larger than had been anticipated; it was also representative, not only in relation to geographical distribution, but also in respect to the classes of educational institutions represented. Teachers of the classics were present from nearly all the states east of the Mississippi River; and at least five states west of the Mississippi were represented, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, and California, the delegation from Missouri being noticeably large. College and university teachers representing institutions East and West met with teachers from normal schools, high schools, academies, and private schools; and there were present in addition several college presidents and a number of school superintendents and principals.

The papers presented at the Conference were in part concerned with matters of scholarship, in part pedagogical. The classical teachers are tired of the exclusive discussion of pedagogical themes, and for meetings such as this prefer a programme the greater portion of which shall be devoted to subjects lying within the field of their studies.¹ All the papers were listened to with close attention. The programme was so full that no time could be spared for general discussion, but the interest in many of the subjects was shown by questions and discussions

¹ Cf. the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for October 1896, pp. 594-603.

after the sessions. Such conferences have at least one advantage over the ordinary meetings of regularly organized associations : the programme is not interrupted by business sessions. In this case the rapid succession of papers on a great variety of subjects, without intervening discussions or the presentation of business matters, seemed to have a stimulating effect. Owing to the limitations of space and the number of papers read, it is not possible, in the following summary of the proceedings, to give in most cases more than a short abstract.

THURSDAY, MARCH 31

MORNING SESSION

The Conference was called to order at 9:30 o'clock by Professor Thomas Day Seymour, Chairman of the Committee of Twelve, who introduced the presiding officer of the session, President Charles Kendall Adams, of the University of Wisconsin. Professor Seymour spoke as follows :

Ladies and Gentlemen : I have the honor to call to order the second Classical Conference at Ann Arbor.

The Philological Association's Committee of Twelve is in a unique position : we are both hosts and guests. As its chairman I extend in its behalf a most hearty welcome to the members of the Conference, and express our hope and confidence that by them the committee will be greatly aided in the work which has been assigned to it by both the American Philological Association and the National Educational Association.

But we are also guests, and in behalf of the Committee of Twelve and its auxiliaries, I assure our Ann Arbor friends of our high appreciation of their hospitality and the tact and energy which have made this Conference possible, and thank them for their welcome.

On several accounts Ann Arbor is a peculiarly fit place for the meeting of this Conference. I need not remind you of the convenience of its situation, nor of the classical spirit which has proceeded and still proceeds from the University of Michigan. Most of the scholars of my own time learned to enjoy Virgil in the delightful edition of Professor Frieze, and studied Professor Boise's edition of the *Anabasis*. To the Ann Arbor scholars of today, I need not refer in your presence and theirs. But I find a kind of poetic justice in this meeting of the Committee of Twelve, since our predecessor, the Greek Conference of the Committee of Ten, met here in December 1892,

and here formulated its recommendations. If this report of the Ann Arbor Conference of 1894 had received from the Committee of Ten the same deference which was paid to the recommendations of the other nine conferences of that year, the Committee of Twelve would not now be in existence, since it was appointed primarily to urge the adoption of the recommendations of the Ann Arbor Conference. So we are returning as it were to our birthplace.

The meeting of scholars who are engaged in similar work, is always helpful and stimulating. Particularly helpful is such a gathering when (as in our case) the field of labor is so large that some are occupied in one part, while others are busy in another province. Our minds are broadened and quickened by learning what our comrades are accomplishing. At such a conference we receive not only information in regard to facts, and views of new methods which may improve our own work of research and instruction, but also an impulse to broaden and deepen our endeavors.

At such a gathering as this we may also derive encouragement for the future of the studies to which our lives are devoted. Doubtless some of us enjoy comparatively little sympathy (in the old sense) from most of our daily associates. Here we may be cheered and roused by the interchange of views and by the reminder of the existence of a large and strong body of classical scholars with whom we are proud to be numbered, and still more encouraged by the renewed and unexpected interest in classical studies which is felt in other parts of our country.

Within the last thirteen months the Committee of Twelve has received reports from more than a thousand teachers of classics and principals of schools in all parts of the United States, and on the whole we consider the outlook to be distinctly bright. Classical studies are now pursued with great vigor in states of our Union where for one reason or another we might think them not likely to be appreciated, and in connection with institutions where the influence of legislatures has been thought to bode ill to all unpractical studies. In Wisconsin, California, Tennessee, and Mississippi far more students are pursuing classical studies than five years ago. In California, for example, three times as many pupils of the public schools are studying Greek, as three years ago. In Mississippi is found the most marked instance of the advance, of which we hope to hear details tomorrow. Pleasant reports come from Texas, too. More than one Texan teacher has assured me that Texas does not desire any reduction of the requirements for admission to college, promising that soon the schools of that state will be able and willing to meet the demands of the best colleges of the country.

I believe that a reaction has begun in favor of classical studies. But we must bear in mind the congested condition of the course of study in most secondary schools, and must ask in behalf of our studies for no more time and strength than can be reasonably granted. In this matter the Committee of Twelve looks for direct help from the teachers who are present at this con-

ference. What is practicable, what can be wisely asked, is one of the most important questions before us.

I have the honor to introduce to the Conference, as the presiding officer of the morning, a scholar who needs no introduction to an Ann Arbor audience—his foot is here on his native heath—whose name and work are familiar to all, President Charles Kendall Adams, of the University of Wisconsin.

President Adams on taking the chair called attention to the service of the University of Michigan in behalf of the classics, saying that this service had been rendered largely through the personal influence of Professors Boise and Frieze.

These men sent teachers of Latin and Greek throughout the Northwest; their influence was so strong that during the whole of the twenty-eight years of my connection with the University of Michigan the classical course was considered what might be called the "Brahmin" course in the University. Their influence did not a little to make education in the north central states what it is at the present time.

Attention was called to the fact also that the north central states are as yet but imperfectly understood by the scholars of the East. It has been said that only two classes of men in the East have yet discovered the Northwest; these are the wholesale merchants and the railroad men. Even these, while they understand the material resources of the country, have no very adequate notion of what is going on in the way of education. The population of what is now officially called the north central states is nearly as large as the north Atlantic group and the south Atlantic group combined. But this fact, important as it is, does not indicate its intellectual condition or its intellectual aspirations. The number of students in colleges and universities in these states, as shown by the latest report of the Commissioner of Education, is greater than the number in all the eastern states put together.

Further, in every thousand of the inhabitants the number of pupils in the secondary schools of all grades in the north Atlantic group is 8.3 and in the north central group is 10.6. The states of this region are, for the most part, settled by people who came from the East and who brought with them their intellectual impulses and aspirations. They have always had a firm determination to supply as far as possible for their children the advantages that come from the establishment of the best possible schools. Hence it is that throughout the region the high school is one of the most prominent objects of interest. In the work of inspiring and elevating these schools very much has been done by the system of examination by officers of the University, brought into vogue by the University of Michigan, about the year 1870. Classical teachers trained in the University of Michigan have gone into all of the north central states and have done much to keep alive an interest, which otherwise was in

danger of being overwhelmed by the material impulses incident to the situation.

Following President Adams Mr. E. C. Goddard, President of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, spoke a few words of welcome on behalf of that organization. Acting-President H. B. Hutchins, of the University of Michigan, then welcomed the Conference in the name of the University :

A conference such as this is full of significance. The fact that delegates gather here from every part of the country to discuss questions that are of importance to the classical learning of the day, indicates a widespread and living interest in the cause of classical scholarship. It indicates that the time has not yet come, and let us hope that it may never come, when the literatures that have charmed and instructed for so many centuries and that have done so much in the way of forming and quickening the intellectual life of so many generations, including our own, are to take a subordinate place in our system of education. We must, of course, recognize the fact that the discoveries of modern times have made a new education possible and indeed necessary. The demands of our present civilization cannot be fully satisfied by the single curriculum of the past; but it is certainly a matter of congratulation to all lovers of sound learning that the people so generally recognize that the best possible preparation for scientific and professional study is that which has its basis in classical study. While the field of intellectual activity is continually enlarging and new subjects are coming forward for recognition, the demand for classical instruction of the highest order in no way abates, but is rather on the increase. That this is true in the universities of the great northwest, which are so largely supported by a direct tax upon the people, is a fact of great significance. While they fully recognize and provide for the practical necessities of our day and time and offer to students the greatest freedom of election, these universities of the people preserve in its integrity the classical curriculum, and in most of them it is of commanding importance and influence.

The fact that leading classical scholars should come together in conference at a western center of learning certainly shows an appreciative interest in the work of the western schools. The willingness of our friends from the older universities to assembly here is a graceful recognition on your part of the efforts of the teachers of the West in the cause of classical learning. Your very presence must serve as an encouragement to your coworkers in these new fields. The results of such a gathering must be to stimulate all to better work and higher ideals. If the humanities are to continue to have the public recognition and support that their merit demands, the people must be made to appreciate their value not only as a means of culture but also as a foundation for the practical callings of the day. An appreciation that will be

widespread and effective and permanent can only be secured by the enthusiastic and general coöperation of classical teachers in every part of the country. As a means to this end, the conference that brings together representatives from universities and schools that are widely separated and that differ radically in traditions and constituency, is of the first importance.

President Hutchins spoke also of the services of Dr. Henry P. Tappan, the first president of the University of Michigan, in promoting the interests of sound education, particularly of classical education, in the West, and added a further tribute to the memory of Professor Frieze :

"I am sure that I do not exaggerate when I state that no one has done so much to popularize classical study in the West and to bring the schools of this region to a realization of the value of a literary and classical training as did Professor Frieze during his thirty-five years of labor as Professor of Latin in this University."

The reading of formal papers then commenced :

1. "The Portraits of Virgil," by Professor Harold North Fowler, of Western Reserve University.

This paper will be printed in full later.

2. "The Roman Pronunciation of Latin," by Professor Wm. Gardner Hale, of the University of Chicago.

Instead of reading the paper which he had prepared, which is printed in full (see pp. 394-411), Professor Hale gave an interesting exercise in pronunciation, training a class of young pupils from the Ann Arbor High School so that after a few moments they gave the quantitative pronunciation of several words with remarkable accuracy, and read easily some examples of Latin verse.

3. "The Neo-Platonists," by Dr. Thomas M. Johnson, of Osceola, Missouri.

Dr. Johnson made an earnest plea for the study of the Neo-Platonists and for the correction of current misapprehensions regarding their place in the history of thought.

4. Studies in the Life of Caracalla,

(1) "The Journey to Gaul and the Arval Records," by Professor Joseph H. Drake, of the University of Michigan.

(2) "Events following the Death of Geta," by Principal Ralph Garwood, of the Marshall High School.

This paper will be published in full in the *American Journal of Philology*, Vol. XIX.

5. "The Modern Latin Poet Sarbievius," by Professor Austin O'Malley, of Notre Dame University.

Sarbievius is the Latinized form of the Polish name Sarbiewski, and the poet, who lived between 1595 and 1640, is sometimes called Casimir by English writers. He is a leader among modern imitators of Roman poetic methods of expression.

One of the most noteworthy characteristics of his verse is the extraordinary ease of its Latinity. He wrote with the self-possession of a man that is composing in his native tongue. The causes of this fluency were long and careful labor, and the general use of Latin among the upper classes of Poland during his lifetime.

The broad patriotism of his martial odes is remarkable when we remember the narrow, family spirit of the Polish nobility at the beginning of the seventeenth century. He pleaded for the redemption of Greece from Turkish rule as earnestly as Byron did two centuries later.

Sarbievius was a friend and favorite of Pope Urban VIII, who, as Cardinal Maffeo Barberini, had himself published a volume of Latin verse. Urban laureated the Polish poet at the Capitol.

King Ladislas IV of Poland made the poet almoner and court preacher in 1635, and Sarbievius became a favorite of the king also. He was a devout Christian always, and there is no sign in his biographies of any taint in his character from the adulation showered upon him everywhere.

There is in his poems a singular combination of Roman stateliness with a Slavish profusion and extravagance of expression. It would be impossible to find anywhere in the work of an Italian of that period his irrepressible verbal luxuriance. He is always serious, even filled with the melancholy of the Slav.

Hallam seriously compares Sarbievius with Horace, and sees no good in the Pole because he was inferior to the Roman, but this parallelism is as ill advised here as such work commonly proves to be. The only resemblance to Horace Sarbievius shows are certain accidental verbal imitations, and the fact that both are fond of moral themes. The final causes of Horace's philosophy are entirely human, those of Sarbievius are altogether supernatural and Christian as he accepted Christianity.

The Polish poet's great blunder was that he wrote in Latin. Perfection in the use of Latin means more than mere purity of language—the writer must gaze upon the world through Roman eyes, and no modern man can do that. Sarbievius should have recognized that the spirit of Rome may not be conjured up through the imagination of a Gothic mind taught to look in upon itself by fifteen centuries of Christianity. Coleridge, however, praises Sarbievius for the classic tone of his style and diction.

6. "Notes on words in Biblical Greek compounded with two

Prepositions," by Wm. Warner Bishop, of the Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Ill.

Mr. Bishop's paper was read by title.

7. "Some Early Printed Virgils, illustrated by examples from the Morgan Collection recently presented to the library of Princeton University," by Professor Andrew F. West, of Princeton University.

The finest collection of any author in the Princeton library is the Morgan collection of the editions of Virgil. It is surpassed, in the ground that it covers, by only three or four of the great libraries abroad. Besides Latin editions it contains translations in many languages, Greek, English, French (including a number of rare translations into provincial dialects), Spanish, Italian, German, Dutch, and Portuguese. There are also copies of works which had Virgil's works as a basis, such as Scarron, *Le Virgile Travestie*, and Cotton, *Scarronides*; and the mediæval legends formed about Virgil as a magician. The principal commentators are here in early editions, and the Centos relating to the dispute occasioned by the bull *Unigenitus*.

Besides the copies of the *Editio Princeps* and the first dated edition, which I have brought with me and of which I shall speak later, there is a copy of the edition of 1472, described by Copinger under No. 14. This is a handsome book, probably printed by Bartholomæus Girardinus, in Roman type. This copy has fine illuminated capitals and a beautiful drawing facing the first Eclogue, representing Tityrus and Meliboeus. Of this edition Dr. Copinger mentions three copies. There is a copy of the edition of 1473, printed at Brescia and supposed by Pauzer to be the first book printed at that place. This is an excessively rare edition, the only other copy known, besides a very imperfect one in the British Museum, being in the John Ryland's Library, Manchester. There is a copy of the edition of 1475, printed by Jensen in his beautiful Roman type, the type which has been the admiration of printers and book-lovers to this day. There is also, of the next century, the sixteenth, the Virgil of Koberger, the famous Nuremberger and friend of Albert Dürer.

The collection contains also an incomplete copy of the first edition on vellum, besides Woodhull's copy on paper; and a copy of the edition of 1514 on vellum. No copy on vellum is mentioned by Dibdin, Brunet, nor Renouard. The copy of the edition of 1527 is a very fine one on thick paper, and the edition of 1541 in this library is represented by Grolier's copy in one of the celebrated bindings done for him. The copy of the edition of 1580 has the autograph of Daniel Heinsius, who edited the Elzevir Virgil, on the title page. Of the eight Stephens' editions in Latin mentioned by Renouard in his biography of the Estiennes, the library lacks but one. Among them is the copy

of the edition of 1532, which had belonged to Melancthon, and which I have brought to show you.

The Giunta publishing house is well represented by seven editions, including the first of 1510, a very rare book. Of the Plantin press there are five editions, a copy of the beautiful folio edition of 1575, with the comment of Guellius, being among the number. The seventeenth century has copies of seventy-four editions here, texts and translations. The Elzevirs number six, among them the edition of 1676, on large paper. The Variorum and Delphin editions are also here in full force, the latter beginning with the first of 1675, and followed by most of those that come after.

Of the eighteenth century, the last that I shall specify, there are seventy-five editions of the text. Among them will be found Burmann's important edition of 1746, on large paper, the edition of H. Justice, engraved throughout, also on large paper, as are copies of the Hoyne edition, 1793, the Wakefield, 1796, the Didot, 1798. Among other Didots there are two worthy of mention. The magnificent edition of 1798, imperial folio, with the beautiful engravings, proofs before letters, and the folio edition of 1791, one of five copies on vellum and certainly one of the most superb specimens of printing on vellum imaginable.

To speak for a moment of the translations — among the English will be found the first of Gavin Douglass, Bishop of Dunkeld, 1553, several editions of Phaer and Twynne, May's Georgics, Ogilvy's, Dryden's, Marlyn's translations, besides many others. Of the various French translations there are forty-two editions, from the first French translation of the Eclogues, 1516, to that published by Bluet at the beginning of this century. The Italian translations are well represented, and in numerous editions, from 1476 throughout the same period. The Spanish are here also in a very interesting group, comprising rare sixteenth and seventeenth century editions from the presses of Toledo, Alcala, and Madrid.

I may add a word in regard to the binding. Among these Virgils are examples of the bookbinder's art in every form in which it found expression, from the fifteenth century to our day, teaching thereby a valuable lesson in the history of this art. And furthermore, as most of the famous printers from the beginning to the present time have published at least one edition of Virgil, either in the original Latin or a translation, there is scarcely an author, a collection of whose works could in so remarkable a degree be at the same time a history of the art of printing and book illustration.

The rare and beautiful volumes which Professor West exhibited at the Conference were the following:

(a) A MS. of Virgil's *Aeneid*, fifteenth century, evidently copied in facsimile from an eighth or ninth century manuscript, and on that account of value. It begins at line 175 of the first *Aeneid*. The commentary is written

in a small, Italian hand of the fifteenth century. At the end occurs the name of the scribe, as follows: "2^{is} Kal^{is} Aug. 1474. Me Scriptore Pecio Arisio Maronianum opus perfectum." The manuscript is from the famous collection of Sir Thomas Phillipps, No. 4585.

(b) The first printed edition of Virgil. This is in Roman type, and without pagination, signatures, or catchwords. It was printed in Rome, in 1469, by Sweynheim & Pannartz. It is one of the rarest editions of the classics. Not more than six copies are known, all being in public libraries, as follows:

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| 1. John Ryland's Library, Manchester, formerly Lord Spencer's. | |
| 2. Bodleian, Oxford. | 5. Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. |
| 3. St. Geneviève, Paris. | 6. Princeton University. |
| 4. Laurentian, Florence. | |

This copy is perfect. Some copies have the Priapeia, which occupy five leaves. This copy has not, nor has the fine copy at the Bibliothèque St. Geneviève, and they are not called for in the printed list of contents. The copy at the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, lacks a leaf, the copy being completed by a leaf in facsimile, while the Bodleian copy, which was one of Lord Spencer's duplicates, lacks four leaves, and is in very tender condition generally. It is proposed to complete this copy by means of facsimiles from the Princeton copy.

(c) Edition of Vindelinius de Spira, printed at Venice, in 1470; printed on vellum in Roman type, without pagination, signature, or catchwords. This is the first dated edition of Virgil, and according to Brunet is more beautiful, more correct, and very nearly as rare as the editions previously mentioned by him (the first and second Roman, 1471, and the edition of Mentelin, about 1469). It is much sought after by collectors. According to Ebert there are eight copies on vellum, and Dr. Copinger (to whose article entitled *Incunabula Virgiliana* in Part II, Vol. II of the transactions of the Bibliographical Society of London we refer those who wish to look into the matter of fifteenth century Virgils) mentions six copies on paper.

(d) Commentary of Servius on Virgil. This early edition of Servius's Commentary on Virgil's works was printed about 1470-1472, according to Brunet. It is probably the first printed edition, although the Roman edition, printed by Ulric Gall, of which there is also a copy at Princeton, is the first mentioned by Brunet. The book has neither pagination, catchwords, nor signatures, and full pages have fifty-six lines, printed in double column.

(e) Edition of Virgil by R. Stephanus, in folio, Paris, 1532. This is the great edition of the Estiennes, with the commentary of Johannes Pierius Valerianus. This copy is notable as having been in the library of Philip Melancthon, and has numerous notes in his handwriting. It came from the famous library of George Kloss of Frankfort, so rich in Melancthon treasures, and has his book plate.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The session opened at 2 o'clock, the presiding officer being Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago.

8. "The Orpheus Relief and the Parthenon Frieze," by Professor John Pickard, of the University of Missouri.

This paper will be published in full in the *American Journal of Archaeology*.

9. "On Palæography as a Discipline, illustrated by Recent Work on the Manuscripts of Terence," by Professor Minton Warren, of Johns Hopkins University.

Palæography, while not a new science, is a study to which comparatively little attention has been paid in America. The reason is not far to seek, as important manuscripts are not accessible in this country. But now that so many scholars travel and study abroad, and the number of *facsimiles* of whole manuscripts, and of specimen pages of different manuscripts, is constantly increasing, there is no good reason why the study should not be made an important adjunct of seminary work. It is not a study to be recommended for college courses, yet every teacher of the classics ought to be able to make his work more interesting by some personal knowledge of manuscripts. Some acquaintance with the abbreviations common in minuscule writing and with the characteristic scripts of different periods is helpful in determining whether an emendation proposed has any probability viewed palæographically. It is a common impression that the best manuscripts of all the classical writers have been examined by competent scholars and that little more remains to be done. But good scholars are sometimes poor palæographers, and it is seldom the case that a collation cannot be improved in some respects. Errors of omission are often as grave here as errors of commission, and often things which seem very trivial in themselves are of prime importance in determining the relation of single manuscripts or of families of manuscripts to each other. Much less attention, too, has been paid to interlinear and marginal glosses than the subject deserves, for these are often fruitful in producing a corruption of the text.

It was shown that Umpfenbach's edition of Terence, which is often spoken of as a final critical edition of that author, is often wanting in accuracy and completeness. Considerable work has been done on the manuscripts of Terence during the past year by Professor Warren and some of the students connected with the School of Classical Studies in Rome. The number of Terence manuscripts in the different libraries in Europe is very great. There are some 50 in the British Museum, 30 in Oxford, nearly 50 in the National Library at Paris, 29 in the Laurentian Library at Florence, and 22 in Milan,

not to mention those in Munich, Venice, Verona, Rome, and elsewhere. Most of these are, of course, late and not of the first importance. Still readings occur in late manuscripts which the editors have put into the text by conjecture and without manuscript authority.

In studying the Bembinus especial attention was paid to the colometry, for this manuscript, dating back at least to the fifth century, has best preserved the division of verses. The long iambic and trochaic tetrameters begin close to the margin, the short verses, like the iambic senarii, are set in a little way from the margin, while dimeters begin still nearer to the middle of the page. Sometimes, however, long verses are broken and have the appearance of constituting a long and a short verse, so that it is not surprising that in the minuscule manuscripts descended from a capital archetype, dimeters are sometimes tacked on to the preceding line so as to make one long verse.

In a Vaticanus manuscript known as G., of the eleventh century, while the text is written as prose, the preservation in many cases of the capital letters which began the verse in the archetype, enables us to see what was the original division of verses, and it is noteworthy that here G. often agrees with the Bembinus against the Paris manuscript, which, next to the Bembinus, has most carefully preserved the metrical arrangement. Consequently this is quite important for the Andria, the greater part of which is lacking in the Bembinus. A similar state of things was shown to be true of the Florence manuscript known as D. Here, for example, the Phormio is written throughout as prose, but nevertheless by noting the capital letters which appear in the text, one could approximately restore the original verse division. The Dunelmensis, an Oxford manuscript of the twelfth century, of which no exact collation has ever been published, agrees very closely with the Parisinus, but has some interesting readings of its own. A careful comparison has been made by one of the students of the American School of the illustrated manuscripts of Terence. There are at least seven of these, but the most important are the manuscripts at Rome, Milan, Paris, and Oxford, which, while differing in detail, must go back to the same archetype. It is, indeed, probable that these picture manuscripts were known in the first century of our era. The costumes represent a good period, and the gestures often correspond to those described by Donatus and Quintilian. Only a brief notice of this paper can be given here. The full results of the investigations will appear among the papers of the American School to be published in the *American Journal of Archaeology*.

10. "The Less Vivid Condition in Greek," by Professor Wm. Cranston Lawton, Adelphi College.

This paper was read by title.

11. "Asinius Pollio and Cicero," by Professor W. H. Johnson, of Denison University.

Professor Johnson presented merely an outline of his paper on Asinius Pollio and Cicero, as he had been prevented by untoward circumstances from bringing it to a satisfactory degree of completion. The ground taken was that the references to Pollio in Virgil, Horace, Cicero, the Senecas, Tacitus, Quintilian, the Plinys, Gellius, Appian, Plutarch, Dio and other ancient authors do not warrant the important position which is generally assigned to him as an author, a critic and a man of affairs, and especially that the study of his language by Schmalz, so far as his relation to Cicero is concerned, is based upon pure assumption.

12. "Expression of the Agent with Verbals in τέος," by Professor Charles Edward Bishop, of William and Mary College.

In Sanskrit the agent of the gerund may be expressed either by the dative, genitive, or instrumental, with a noted *preference for the instrumental*. Homer never uses the verbals in τέος. Between Homer and Aristotle the known Greek literature furnishes about 1831 examples of the τeo form. Of that number about 400 are accompanied by the agent-expression. We naturally expect the Sanskrit preference for the instrumental to find an analogue in Greek. As a matter of fact the agent case in Greek is always—save one possible exception in Deinarch—either the dative or the peculiarly Greek agent case, the accusative. Now, close examination of these cases leads us to the suspicion that the dative here is a *personified instrumental*, which may, in origin at least, be quite different from the pure dative. The other case thus used, the accusative, is, properly speaking, no agent case at all, but a form of the accusative of specification, giving the person as to which: the agent feature is thus only inferential. Such an accusative does *not* arise from a bunglesome and unthinking confusion with the infinitive-accusative after δεῖ, χρῆ, etc. This accusative "of the agent" is associated exclusively with the *impersonal* construction of the gerund, while the dative is allowed as the agent case in association with the personal gerundive. Then we immediately see the parallelism between the personalness of the personal gerundive construction with its quick, sentient dative, and the impersonalness of the impersonal gerund-construction with its lethargic, lifeless accusative. In the 10,500 Teubner pages of Greek literature of this period there is no notable exception to these principles. The agent-accusative does not appear in Æschylus or Sophocles; only twice in Euripides, and then only hinted at by the participle, not openly expressed by a noun or pronoun. Aristophanes (Equites, 72) gives the first instance of the expression of the agent by a personal pronoun in the accusative: then we hesitatingly locate the beginning of this construction somewhere about 430 B. C. Aristophanes has two other cases of this construction—three indeed, if in *Vesp.* 1514 we read μ' instead

of γ'. Naturally Herodotus avoids this "Attic" construction of the agent-accusative. Of Thucydides' three examples, that in VIII, 65 is peculiarly interesting in exhibiting the neat parallelism between the vague, rejected negative thought, *οὔτε μισθοφορητέον εἴη ἄλλους*, and the accepted specific alternative with its exact numeral, *πεντακισχιλίοις*, where the agent at once appears in the dative. Xenophon is no lover of this construction, never using it in ten of his extant works, of which the *Hellenika* is one, since Breitenbach has retrenched the erroneous statement in the '63 edition, to the effect that *ἀλλήλους* in VI, 3 is agent-accusative. Thus, in view of the un-Xenophontian nature of the construction, we suspect some subtle significance in the fact that three instances of its usage appear in the short 23 T. pages of the *Hipparchicus*. The construction does not occur in twenty-five of those of Plato's *Dialogues* in which the *τεο* forms occur. These loci are of the ordinary type, save in Rep. 400 D, where the words *ταῦτά γε λόγῳ ἀκολουθητέον* cannot be satisfactorily analyzed. Similarly, in the *Laus*, 643, A, the words *φημὲν ἵτεον εἶναι τὸν λόγον* are incorrect or illogical, or what one will, but in the l. l. they doubtless sound well to the ear. Of all the orators, only Andocides, Isocrates, and Demosthenes show examples of this accusative-agent construction. All told, then, we count fifty-five or fifty-six cases of this construction. In the majority of these cases the person is merely *referred to* by the participle, leaving only twelve cases in which the agent is openly stated by the noun or pronoun. The pressing question — what is the real difference in meaning between the accusative agent and the dative agent — finds its answer: in the earliest examples the accusative is always more or less indefinite, distant, vague; more generally in the plural number; contains a sweeping, universal tone. *The accusative is objective, the dative subjective*. However, with the accusative the sentient personal pronoun is very rarely used, and always (with one more or less suspected exception) in the more evasive plural number. With the dative agent, on the contrary, the personal pronoun is quite common. There are 344 cases of agent-dative, of which 270 are personal pronouns, and of these one-half (139) are of the first person (the most subjective), 68 of the second person, while the fewest examples (62) are of the third person. Then the objectiveness of the agent-accusative may be (1) beyond the control of the "agent," hence of tragic necessity, etc.; (2) that same in the mouth of the quasi-desperate comic actor, hence of ludicrous helplessness; (3) the intermediate, passionless vagueness. Thus the sphere of the accusative is a narrow one. Oratory spurns it, since only five meager cases can be found in the 2949 T. pages of the Attic orators.

13. "The English Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names," by Professor George Hempl, of the University of Michigan.

This paper is published in full. See pp. 412-418.

Professor Hempl's paper was discussed by Professor C. M. Moss, of the University of Illinois:

Professor Hempl has very lucidly told us how the spelling of Greek proper names, as we knew it some years ago, came about. If any change should have been made at all, it should either have been a complete transliteration of the Greek names or a partial change based on an agreed programme. The former was impossible, though some have tried it with results that appear grotesque to our eyes. The latter has been mostly followed, and with results that are not only grotesque, but are a disgrace to classical instruction. If a strict transliteration had been made, students would, at least, have known how to spell names from Greek into English, but now they neither know how to spell them nor how to pronounce them. Any teacher will bear me out in saying that students will make no attempt of their own accord to pronounce these words if the suggestion of inability to do so appears. At present they are even less inclined to attempt it, for whether they should say Odusseus, Odysseus, Ulysses, or Outis, they do not know any more than Cyclops did, and are disposed to do as he did — throw a rock at the whole subject and let it go.

There is ample reason why these names should have been left as they grew into the language, because centuries of our literature used them in that way. So large is their use that we regard it needful for our children in the public schools to read Greek mythology in order properly to understand their own literature. But the mischief begins even in their books. For thirty years or more this confounding has been going on till, no matter what is done now, there will ever remain a babel of names in the English literature of this period, for which there was no excuse to begin with, and is no reason for its continuance. The absurd ground of the prevailing practice needs only to be stated: an editor or writer determines for himself what words the English reading public knows too well to permit him to change, and none is made — Cyrus remains Cyrus; Lacedaemon, Lacedaemon; what names he thinks we do not know too well, he turns into Greek or jargon, at will, and Aeschylus becomes either Aischulos or Aiskhulos, at the former of which the reader may guess, but the latter might be an Accad inscription for all he can divine. Is it not plain that if such a state of affairs existed in any department of physics it would be done away with instantly?

The extent of this demoralization I do not think is appreciated even by classical people. A few hours of inspection of current books gave whole pages of illustrations, the same book often showing the most ridiculous inconsistencies when gauged by its own standard. For instance, one book gives Phaidon, but nominatives plural of the first declension appear in *ae*, not *ai*. We find Herakles, Sokrates, but Corinth, Cyclopes. In another appear Lykia, Crete; Kleonai, Dodonaean; both Olympus and Olympos. In another,

Codrus, Sokrates; Aischenes, Phaedo. In others these occur: Byzantion, Byzantium (in the same volume); Abydos, Miletus; Isaios, Potidaea; Klutoneus, Eurycleia; both Corcyra and Kerkyra and Korkyra; in one book all names of deities appear in Latin dress, *e. g.*, Hephaestus as Vulcan, but otherwise no order exists; Ajax and Aias appear on the same page of Harrison and Verrall's *Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens*; and so on *ad libitum*. Final ae is sometimes written æ. Eta and omega are sometimes marked with a circumflex, sometimes not; and eta is sometimes given a grave accent at the end of a word. Whether we are to say Meno or Menon, Antipho or Antiphon, or even Apollon, no one can find out. The crowning absurdity is found in such words as Thermopoulai (sic), and in *Διωνος* being "transliterated" Bakchos! Or, if one wants, Sir George Cox helps out with Cyprus, Kupros, and Kupros (Cyprus), and innumerable other devices. It costs nothing to take your choice.

This list might be indefinitely extended, but only to the disgrace of the profession. It ought to end at once. It would end if it were in some departments of learning. Why anti-classicists should be handed this additional club is hard to say. Some series of books are going back to the old method, and all ought to.

14. "Characteristics of the More Elevated Style of Thucydides, illustrated by Book VII, Chapter 75," by Professor Charles Forster Smith, of the University of Wisconsin.

In such descriptions as this, Thucydides shows his peculiar power, rising in style at once to suit the occasion, having a grander rhythm than ordinary, appropriating words from the poets, from Homer and the drama, borrowing from the Ionic, coining new terms. We feel his kinship at once with Aeschylus and Pindar. He is not struggling with the language, with a material not yet fully adapted to prose narration. He is *master* of the language; he does as he pleases with his own, as a great creative genius always has the right to do. He consciously avoids at such times the ordinary language of daily life, and creates a great literary dialect for himself. He coins new words, not because Attic prose is undeveloped or because the existing prose language is poor, but because he is rich; because he is essentially a poet.

He uses rare terms and unusual forms of expression because ordinary terms have traditional associations that may detract from the dignity of the subject at such a time. He uses poetic terms because poetry alone can adequately express deep human passion and pathos, and because these terms have been in a measure sacred to his readers from their earliest use of the one great national text-book (Homer), or are associated in their minds with all that has so moved and thrilled and purified them in their own great drama, in the *Agamemnon*, the *Oedipus Rex*, the *Antigone*. The effect was like borrowing great

biblical words, which everybody knows and which are consecrated by association to describe some event of unusual moment.

Like the great Greek artist that he is, and so unlike the great modern artist, he gives just enough particulars to make the picture clear and real, only so much detail as will stamp the impression indelibly, leaving all the rest to the imagination. Thucydides is a master of stern pathos, the pathos of naked, awful facts expressed by a few vivid touches, by a few words fitly chosen or coined to reveal the depth and hopelessness of woe, a suffering "too great for tears," under which the heart simply sinks and despairs. Because of this he is a great poet. And so with words freshly made and burdened with his great meaning, or others rich with old poetic associations, he paints with few but unforgettable details, pictures that remain graven upon the memory forever, as, for example, in this book the sea fight in the great harbor (chaps. 70, 71); our own chapter; the butchery at the river Assinarus (chap. 84); the awful sufferings of the Athenian captives in the Syracusan stone quarries (chap. 87).

Mahaffy calls him "the cold Thucydides;" but he is not *cold* any more than Sophocles is "narrow in his sympathies"—Mahaffy again. He is stern, he is austere, he is self-restrained. He does not allow himself usually to moralize on the enormities of the horrors he describes, because the stern and awful facts are in themselves adequate to effect not only the rousing but the purgation of the feelings.

The remainder of the paper was devoted to a translation of the chapter, and to the illustration of the characteristics above set forth, by a discussion of the new, rare, poetic, and Ionic words and idioms with which the chapter abounds:

ἀπαξ εἰρημένα: ἀντιβολία, ἐκκρεμάννοσθαι, ἐπιθεασμός, κατήφεια, ἀπαντομολεῖν, αἰκία, κούφισις, ταπεινότης, ἐπιφήμισμα.

New Words: ἀντιβολία, ὀλοφυρμός, ἐπιθεασμός, κατάμεψις, ἰσομοιρία, κούφισις, ἐπιφήμισμα.

Poetical Words and Constructions: ἀλγεινά, κείμενος, ἐπιβούμενοι, προλιπεῖν, ὀλιγος, οἰμωγή, κατήφεια, καὶ μὴν, αἰκία οὐδ' ὥς, αἴχλημα, ναυβάτης, δάκροισι . . . πλησθέν, μεῖρω ἢ κατὰ δάκρυα, ἀπὸ οἴας . . . ἐς οἴαν.

15. "The Results of the Chicago Experiment in Introducing Latin into the Seventh and Eighth Grades," by Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago.

This paper is printed in full. See pp. 379-393.

At the close of Superintendent Nightingale's paper the following resolutions, offered by Professor Andrew F. West, were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Classical Conference has heard with great satisfaction of the marked success which has attended the extension of the Latin course.

to six years in the schools of the city of Chicago, by placing the earlier part of the work in the last two years of the grammar schools.

Resolved, That this Conference strongly reaffirms the recommendation made here three years ago by the former Classical Conference to the effect that as soon as practicable the Latin work of our secondary schools should be made to cover a period of six years.

16. "The Preliminary Report of the Committee of Twelve."

The Report was discussed in a symposium by Dean Charles H. Thurber, of Morgan Park Academy; Professor Edwin W. Fay, of Washington and Lee University; and Professor Charles O. Denny, of Drake University.

Owing to unexpected detention Dean Thurber was not able to be present, and his paper was read by Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago. It is printed in full at the special request of members of the Committee of Twelve.

It may be well, first of all, to say a word about a misconception that has arisen concerning the authority under which the Philological Association has been acting. This report purports to have been prepared by the Philological Association, at the request of the National Educational Association. That any such request was ever issued at all has been denied. It has been stated, furthermore, that this high-sounding commission was really issued by a small committee of a department of the National Educational Association, namely, the committee on College Entrance Requirements, and, furthermore, that it was issued at a meeting when only six members of the committee were present. Therefore the inference has been that a request, which was supposed to emanate from the largest educational body in the country, a body which through several now famous committees has exercised an incalculable influence upon education throughout the nation, a body whose summons to any service might fairly be considered to constitute the highest call that could be issued to such a service, was unknown to that body, and that it never heard of the proposition to invite the American Philological Association to prepare model courses in Latin and Greek; but that, on the contrary, the notion was conceived in the fertile brains of an insignificant group of conspirators. If this were true one of two things would follow: Either the American Philological Association had been misled by these conspirators, or the American Philological Association was misleading the public. Either horn of the dilemma would be equally humiliating to the American Philological Association. A full revelation of the facts involves such a reflection upon the ability of the present speaker to express himself in clear English, that he would be willing to refrain from making the explanation. If you

will turn, when you have the opportunity, to the secretary's minutes of the report of the joint meeting of the departments of secondary and higher education at the Buffalo meeting of the National Educational Association, you will there find that the chief topic for discussion at that meeting was the report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements. The larger part of this report having been presented in printed form, Professor Hinsdale took the floor for the purpose of offering to the approval of the departments a plan of work which had been prepared by the committee in a large meeting, to which many not members of the committee were invited — a plan carefully elaborated and covering a wide range. One of the features of this plan was this: that the committee should be authorized to invite the coöperation of such bodies as were capable of rendering valuable service in the preparation of reports covering special sections of the large field embraced in the work assigned to the committee itself. This is not the exact language of the resolution, but is somewhat amplified. It was distinctly understood that the American Philological Association, the American Historical Association, the Modern Language Association of America, and other similar bodies were to be invited, under this resolution, to deal with the problems peculiarly belonging to each. The minutes say that at the completion of Professor Hinsdale's report the secretary made an oral report, and that this report was unanimously accepted and adopted. Now I must admit that it is a fair interpretation to put upon the minutes that the acceptance and adoption refer to the secretary's oral report. As a matter of fact, however, the secretary's report was only an incident. I was the secretary, and I had not the slightest idea of making any report whatever. Professor Hinsdale had been appointed by the committee to represent the committee, but I was called upon unexpectedly, and upon the spur of the moment I made such a statement as I could of the work that had been done by the committee during the year. The acceptance and adoption covered the recommendation presented by Professor Hinsdale. The invitation was therefore extended by the joint action of the departments of secondary and higher education in a very large meeting, the largest, I think, that I ever saw composed of members engaged in those fields of education; there could have been hardly less than 800 or 1000 people present. Furthermore, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements has been so fully recognized by the National Educational Association that this year the association has made an appropriation for its work. It is true that the entire National Educational Association in conference assembled — the entire body has never been in conference assembled — did not issue this invitation, but it comes with the full prestige and authority of that part of the National Educational Association to which this field of investigation belongs. Had the invitation been issued by the committee itself, without special action on the part of the departments at their meetings, it would have been authoritative enough, but it has the additional authority conveyed by

the joint vote of the two departments in full session. So it would seem as though it were not necessary to question further the validity of its credentials. The questions that have been raised have undoubtedly been raised honestly, and have been justified by the somewhat misleading character of the secretary's minutes. I have made a brave effort to put the form of the minutes on some one else, trying to lay them upon Secretary Shepard, who I thought must have changed them when revising them for publication, or upon that great burden-bearer of all scamps, the printer; but a great misfortune occurred to me in this connection. Only a day or two ago, in my biennial clearing up of my library, I happened to run across a carbon copy of the secretary's minutes just as I prepared them for Secretary Shepard, and to my surprise and horror I found that they had been printed exactly as I wrote them.

It may be interesting to note that under the same authority by which it issued this invitation to the American Philological Association the Committee on College Entrance Requirements extended a similar invitation to the Modern Language Association of America and to the American Historical Association. Both of these associations accepted the invitations and appointed special committees of their own, and one of them at least—I think both—appropriated money for the work. It so happens, however, that neither of these associations has been able as yet to complete its report, and possibly neither of them will adopt the plan of the Philological Association of issuing a tentative report for criticism before sending the final report to the committee of the national association.

The preliminary report of the Committee of Twelve contains as its most novel feature the full plan of a six-year Latin course. Those of you who are familiar with the work of the National Educational Association will remember that the report of the Committee of Fifteen on the Correlation of Studies in Elementary Education, prepared by such educators as Wm. J. Harris, J. M. Greenwood, C. H. Gilbert, L. H. Jones, and W. H. Maxwell, discusses very fully the question of Latin and algebra in the grammar grades. These gentlemen are not known as classical teachers; on the contrary, they are, without exception, city or national superintendents of schools; their work has, without a single exception, all been in connection with great public school systems. By an investigation, undertaken for the Committee of Twelve of the Philological Association by Mr. Tressler, then of Monroe, Mich., a considerable list of schools was secured that were already maintaining a six-year Latin course, and there is no reasonable doubt that this list might have been very greatly extended if time and opportunity had permitted. In the proceedings of the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York, for December 1897, I find this: "Resolved that the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of New York be urged to encourage the introduction of the study of Latin or some other foreign language in the

eighth and ninth grades." I find also this further resolution: "Resolved that the grammar school curriculum should be enriched, but that great care is necessary in making experiments in this direction on a large scale." It is interesting to note that the movement in favor of a six-year course began in the usual way of all reforms; in the minds of a few teachers and superintendents first, then introduced into a few schools—the results becoming known gradually, and finally public attention being called to the whole movement. The introduction of a six-year Latin course was a matter of great significance to classical teachers and to colleges, as such a course could not but affect the preparation for college entrance. The movement had gained such headway that it must either be allowed to go on to develop irregularly, spasmodically, unsystematically, and without help from those who should be most competent to direct it; or it must become the immediate duty of competent leaders to take such steps as could be taken, systematize the movement, and correlate it with the other features of our educational body. This duty rested upon the Committee on College Entrance Requirements of the National Educational Association and upon the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association. The purpose in framing this six-year course has not been to force anything unduly upon the educational public. It has rather been to give such direction, encouragement, and help to a movement already started, as will make that movement of real value and significance to the country, instead of permitting it to join the ranks of useless and reviled fads.

In framing this six-year course, several difficult problems confronted the committee at the outset. The first question was, Should the six-year course aim at preparing students for advanced rank in college, *i. e.*, should it anticipate some or all of the Freshman and Sophomore college Latin courses? After careful consideration, it was decided that this should not be the aim of the course, and for the following reasons: In a large number of instances students who pass from the first two years of the six-year course in a grammar school into the high school will be brought into the same classes with students who have not had Latin before; the colleges as a whole would not be prepared to welcome such a transference of their work to the secondary schools; what is most to be desired is not a greater quantity of preparation but a greater thoroughness and richness of preparation. It was supposed that a student who took the six-year Latin course might very well, in the first two years in the grammar school, cover practically the work of the first year in the high school. It seems to me, I am bound to say, that some difficulty is inevitable at just this point, difficulty which the plans of the four-year and the six-year course do not at present appear to overcome. Perhaps it is an impossibility to remove that difficulty at present. It may be that the six-year course will be generally practicable only in so far as it is introduced in its completeness. You will have noticed that in the Chicago experiment in

introducing Latin into the seventh and eighth grades difficulty has arisen, because Latin is not introduced into all grammar schools, so that some of the pupils who come to the high school have had one or two years of Latin and some have not had any. It is at this point that the chief difficulty, to my mind, seems to arise.

Now if you will permit I will make a few suggestions and answer a few criticisms of a general kind on this course. These, I may say, the criticisms especially, are few of them original but have come to me from various sources. Undoubtedly a good many of them would have been obviated if a fuller statement of the course had been made and the promised pedagogical justification issued along with the course itself. It was with a definite purpose, however, that the course was issued in its skeleton form as stated, the object being to elicit a more definite expression of opinion and suggestions as to new points of view. First of all it ought to be noted that the course is not a colorless course; it stands for something definite. While it shows the marks of the spirit of reasonable compromise, it also contains definite recommendations which involve the taking of sides in controversial questions, such as the recommendation of vocabularies of moderate compass for thorough mastery, and the mixing of prose and poetry in the last two years, thus securing variety for the pupil, and deferring the examination in both Cicero and Virgil to the end of the course. This arrangement has been severely criticised by those who do not believe in it. One critic says, "It is difficult to believe that it represents in any large degree the views reached by the mature experience of men engaged in secondary Latin instruction." I suspect that the fact is that it is not in accordance with the experience of those who have not tried the plan. In the statement concerning Latin composition it has been suggested that the entire absence of any contention that composition should be based on Latin text already familiar to the student is unfortunate and may be considered to be a concession to reactionary views. This is perhaps a matter for the committee to consider more fully than it has already done. The postponing of the reading of Cæsar to the second year has been objected to by those who believe that Cæsar can be properly begun by the average pupil after about twenty weeks of work in Latin. The introduction of Ovid in the second year is also met with the objection that it is unfortunate to begin poetry at that time. The argument is one by analogy from the Greek, where it is considered by some a mistake for a boy who has just finished Xenophon to plunge into Homer. This is, however, just what is done universally as far as Greek is concerned; but the difficulties of Homer as compared with Greek prose are so manifestly incomparably greater than the difficulties of Ovid as compared with Caesar that the analogy breaks down. The contention is also advanced that the course as a whole is heavy. I presume that this criticism will meet with more supporters than any other. And, again, it is urged that it is something in the line of a national misfortune to

attempt to impose upon secondary schools such a detailed uniformity of curriculum and sequence of authors. These two criticisms may well be met together. So far is it impossible for anybody to impose anything upon anyone in our country that it is inconceivable to think of any intelligent body of school men setting themselves such a task.

It is the duty of educational leaders to hold up ideals. It is not a fair criticism on this course that it is a better course than many schools offer. It would be justly despised and rejected by all schoolmen if it were distinctly a poorer course than most good schools are now following. The question is, Is it a good course toward which to work and develop the classical teaching? So far from any such uniform ideal course limiting the freedom of the individual teacher and being resented by the sensible teachers, it would seem as though it ought to be and would be welcomed. It gives sufficient scope within itself for a considerable play of individuality. But, after all, is not the individuality of the teacher better displayed in the method with which he does his work than in the particular piece of work which he is called upon to do? One teacher may make Caesar a vivid and fascinating story and another fail with any piece of Latin that is put in his hands. The question of what shall be taught, is a question of educational organization and administration, to a large extent, rather than a question of method. It depends upon the relation of one school to another, and demands a consideration of the whole educational field. It is distinctly an administrative problem. A course of study that has been carefully worked out by experts who are in a position to take a wide view of the field is a priceless boon to a great number of teachers who are working, many of them, in remote localities with little opportunity for contact with the great educational world, but who are nevertheless intelligent, sensible, and wise. They will be eager to avail themselves of the best suggestions from the best sources, not for a moment feeling that they are thereby abrogating their independence and reducing themselves to pedagogical servitude. They will reserve their strength and energy for the task that remains to every teacher, of making the subject under discussion, whatever it is, vital and significant.

The second speaker was Professor Edwin W. Fay, of Washington and Lee University.

Professor Fay spoke of the possibility of adjusting the preparatory work in the South to the ideal course laid down by the Committee of Twelve. The four-years' course seemed to him to represent what the bulk of the southern schools must aim at giving, though for many of them a three-years' course was all that was practicable.

In giving his views of the pedagogical aspects of the report he read from a report he had made, in conjunction with Professor Karl P. Harrington, of the University of North Carolina, to the Association of Colleges and Prepar-

atory Schools of the Southern States, in regard to entrance requirements in Latin.

"It does not, perhaps, transcend the functions of this committee to enter here upon a short discussion of what is the proper extent of the preparatory course. We believe, first, that it ought to occupy not less than four years of thirty-six weeks each, with five recitations of three-quarters to a full hour in length (or ten half-hour recitations) per week, to complete an adequate preparatory course. Here it becomes necessary for us to define what we think is an adequate course.

"It seems to us that the Freshman, on entering college, ought to possess the following capacities:

1. An accurate knowledge of all the forms in ordinary prose Latin (Caesar and Cicero's orations), and in easy poetry (Virgil and Ovid).

2. A knowledge of all the essentials of Latin syntax in prose.

3. The power to turn English sentences, simple and compound, into grammatically correct Latin.

4. The ability to translate easy narrative and oratorical prose (Viri Romae, Nepos, Caesar, Cicero) and easy descriptive or narrative poetry (Virgil's *Aeneid*, Ovid's *Metamorphoses*) correctly.

5. The ability to read Latin aloud with consistent pronunciation, and, above all, correct accents, with some conception of proper phrasing.

"The mere reading of four books of Caesar and four orations of Cicero¹ ought not, to be sure, to keep a student busy for four years, and the committee would recommend that, beginning with the autumn of 1900, four books of Virgil be added to the requirements.

"Here, perhaps, is the place to mention that more than one schoolmaster advocates advanced Latin authors for the preparatory course, even Tacitus and Juvenal. We do not see how so much could be done in four years, and we further believe the pupil's mind too immature at this stage of his work to cope successfully with all the difficulties implied in the mastery of these authors, and we think four years the desirable duration of the preparatory course. The educational schedule that seems to us desirable and equitable comprises four years in the preparatory school and four years in the college and we deprecate the extension of the preparatory course upwards as that of the college course downwards. We believe that four years could be very profitably devoted to preparatory Latin, even if it covers no more reading than the association's minimum requirements. In this connection we reprint the schedule of the first five years' course in a Prussian gymnasium, the gymnasium being the smallest in the German Empire, and the age of the lads entering this course being on the average eleven years:

"First Year (in Latin)—Grammar: The forms, limited to the regular

¹ This, and "appropriate" work in prose composition form the minimum requirements of the Association.

forms and excluding deponents ; oral and written translation from the primer ; derivation from the reading lessons of the elementary rules for place and time relations, the instrumental ablative, and the conjunctions *ut, ne, cum* ; memorizing of the vocabulary of the reading lessons ; once weekly a half hour of exercises in class, and occasionally, during the fourth quarter, a task in writing, prepared out of class. Eight hours weekly for forty-one weeks.

"Second Year — Grammar : A lesson and exercise book ; review of the regular forms ; deponents ; irregular forms, limited to the essentials ; accusative and infinitive, attributive participle ; ablative absolute, constructions with names of towns ; acquirement of a moderate vocabulary from the selections read ; oral and written exercises ; a written task once a week. Eight hours (as before).

"Third Year — Grammar : Exercise book : translation of selections (these are named, and seem to be from *Nepos* or *Viri Romae*) ; in the first half year a prelection of the lessons in class ; frequent exercises in construing passages for unseen translation ; retroversion into Latin. Grammar : Repetition of the forms, essentials of the cases, syntax of the verb as needed ; oral and written translations of selections. Once a week a short written exercise or extempore version based on the reading. Three written translations from Latin each half year. Seven hours a week (same number of weeks as before).

"Fourth Year — Grammar ; exercise book ; reading, four hours ; selections from *Caesar*, B. G. ii, v ; Grammar, three hours ; repetition of case relations, chief rules for moods and tenses ; oral and written translation from the exercise book ; every eighth day a Latin composition prepared in class or privately ; every six weeks a written translation into German. (The difficulty of the exercises written in this term will be illustrated by a specimen — seven lines of the thirty-eight in all — of the first continuous exercise after some exercises on the sentence plan for grammatical review: 'After the death of *Romulus* it seemed [good] to the senate to deliver to *Numa Pompilius* the royal power. Therefore (*igitur*) ambassadors were sent to *Cures* to inform *Numa* of the decree of the senate and ask him to come immediately to Rome. He set forth, however, upon hearing the speech of the embassy in the presence of his kinsmen, the reasons why he could not yield to the request of the ambassadors.') Seven hours (as before).

"Fifth Year — Grammar ; exercise book ; *Caesar*, Gallic war ; *Ovid*, selections ; translation, four hours ; *Caesar*, B. G. i, v, vii, selections ; Grammar, three hours, repetition and completion of the syntax of the moods and tenses, conclusion of the syntax of the verb in its principal rules.

"The progress of this scheme of study is, to American habitudes, slow ; and it must be admitted that the pupils are somewhat younger, the average age for these five years being about eleven to sixteen. If the progress is slow, the work is thorough, and the German lad of sixteen knows his syntax in all its chief rules thoroughly, while he knows how to write Latin with greater fluency

and correctness than the average college graduate among us. We think it would be well for our teachers to hold before themselves this schedule of German work in the classics. Our own work, in comparison, is weak in exact grammatical knowledge, forms and syntax alike, and weakest of all in writing Latin. We recommend that after the first year not less than one-fifth of the preparatory course be devoted expressly to Grammar lessons coupled with sentence writing on the plan followed in our best exercise books, while a small part of every recitation in Caesar and Cicero (and even Virgil) should be devoted to oral and blackboard work with exercises based on the text of the day's lesson. After all, that value of the study of Latin which no student should be permitted to miss is mental training, the acquirement of accurate mental habits, and the writing of Latin is admirably adapted to securing such results. An excellent adjunct to this method would be to require from each student, occasionally, a written version in elegant English of say two pages of Latin text.

"We would also call attention to the desirability of teaching preparatory students to read Latin, not like sums down a column, but with correct and intelligent phrasing. One good exercise to secure this end is for the teacher to read every review lesson aloud to his class, and require his pupils to translate by ear.

"Such a curriculum [of preparatory Latin studies] to be helpful, would have to be explicit, and would probably bring up the perplexing question of textbooks, of which, alas, in this day of enterprising publishers, there is an *embarras de richesse*. Your committee can see, however, no valid reason for a "southern" preparatory course any more than for a northern or eastern, unless, indeed, our educational purposes are hopelessly different, and recommend, at least for the present, the reprinting by this association of the preliminary report on preparatory Latin made by the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association. If the attainment of the ideal therein set forth be beyond our present resources, such an ideal, at least, is inspiring to work towards. That report is, however, very vague as to the precise requirements in Latin writing, but in regard to Latin writing your committee has already expressed an opinion above."

Professor Fay asked that the views of the report he read from be considered as more especially directed to conditions in the South at large, and not to individual states in the South nor to the country as a whole.

The third speaker was Professor Charles O. Denny, of Drake University.

The report will have sufficient weight to secure its general adoption, and will result in strong and carefully arranged courses in Latin and Greek in hundreds of schools where weaker courses are now in effect. To secure the full benefits of this movement, provision ought to be made for the widest circula-

tion of the report, so that it will fall into the hands of teachers of Latin and Greek in the small high schools, as well as in the city schools and academies.

In the past, the interests of this class of teachers have not received sufficient consideration. Committee reports, discussions and treatises on methods of teaching have not reached them. They have little opportunity for exchange of views with others in the same line of work, and are outside of the current of progress. A majority of them have drifted into these subjects, or have been forced to teach them by circumstances, with no special preparation, many of them not even having a college education of any sort. And yet these schools are the controlling factor in the educational problem. More boys and girls receive their training in them than in the academies and city schools. They are by law the preparatory schools for the state universities, and by necessity for the colleges, also, as very few colleges are able to maintain stronger preparatory requirements than their neighboring state universities. The report ought to contain a careful discussion of methods of teaching adapted to the needs of the class of teachers I have described. Particular stress should be laid on the importance of thoroughness and care in the first year's work, where the weakest teaching is done.

A detailed discussion of the four-year Latin course followed, which need not be given here. The order of subjects and other details advocated were essentially as they will appear in the final report. The speaker did not think the quantity of reading prescribed was greater than ought to be covered by skillful teachers, though it was somewhat greater than is now required by most state universities and colleges, and, consequently, more than the high schools are doing. The report under consideration will help to raise the standard.

EVENING SESSION.

The presiding officer of this session was Professor Andrew F. West, of Princeton University. The programme began with a selection upon the Frieze Memorial Organ, by Professor Albert A. Stanley, who rendered (by request) Bach's *Phantasie* and *Fugue in G minor*. After the first address, and at the close of the evening, Professor Stanley favored the audience with other selections, including the *Adagio* from the fifth sonata by Guil-mant.

The main address of the evening was by Professor John Williams White, of Harvard University, who spoke upon the *Archæological Institute of America*, of which he is president:

The *Archæological Institute of America* was organized in Boston in 1879. The basis on which it was founded was broad. It announced: "The founders

and existing members of the Institute desire that its lists shall include associates from all parts of the country. Its objects are not narrow or local. It hopes to quicken the interest in classical and biblical studies, to promote an acquaintance with the prehistoric antiquities of our own country, and to enlarge the resources of our universities and museums by such collections of works of art and remains of antiquity as it may be enabled to make." In 1884 the Institute was reorganized. The principle adopted was the confederation of separate societies. There are now ten societies and nearly seven hundred members.

It has undertaken noteworthy excavations at Assos in the Troad, which have been published in two volumes. During 1881-1885, it promoted the exploration of the southwestern United States, and published the results in five volumes. It sent the Wolfe expedition to southern Mesopotamia, and has carried on exploration in Crete. It established the schools at Athens and in Rome.

Its present plans include: the publication of a journal to be issued in bimonthly parts; the establishment of a school for oriental and biblical study and research in Palestine; the publication of the important excavations at the Argive Heraeum; the excavation of ancient Corinth; the further exploration of Crete; the foundation of new societies; the organization of annual courses of lectures, to be delivered by American and foreign archæologists before the societies; and an annual meeting of its members for the reading and discussion of scientific papers.

Archæology has claims on our consideration because it is a science; because it enlarges the boundaries of knowledge; and because it is an interpreter of literature, especially of the classical literatures.

Great changes have been made in the conditions under which the classics are taught: the modern world demands results; the elective system has been widely adopted in colleges. Archæology, as the handmaid of literature, lends her aid to the teacher of the classics. Complete appreciation of the literature of a people is not possible for one who is ignorant of their modes of life, of their environment, and of their sense of form as manifested in their art. Archæology furnishes a wealth of material for the visible illustration of the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome. The student at the schools in Athens and Rome, for example, acquires some knowledge of ancient architecture, sculpture, painting, ceramics, terra-cottas, coins, bronzes, jewels, and the practical science of the spade, as well of epigraphy and palæography, and of geography and topography.

But there are higher and better influences than these to be found in the fair lands of Italy and Greece. Who can measure the spiritual effect of the great creations of Greek genius in its manifestation in the fine arts? The effect of residence and study in these lands on an imaginative and sensitive nature is often hard to grasp and define, but it is none the less real and per-

manent. Such a nature receives an abiding impression of the *reality* of ancient Greece and Rome, and their authors now speak to him in a living tongue.

Professor Thomas D. Seymour followed with a brief account of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens:

I often compare my own visit to Greece in my student days, in company with Professor D'Ooge, with the work of the American student in Athens today. In certain respects I was favored, and few Americans of that time were more fortunate. I had a most genial and congenial companion, and as times went we had a fair scholarly preparation for our sojourn. We had heard Voigt and Droysen lecture on Greek history, in Leipzig and Berlin; we had heard Overbeck on Greek art, and Ernst Curtius on archæology. I had worked diligently for months in the study of the ruins and museums of Italy. Our American consul in Athens was a scholar, familiar with both the classical and the modern language of Greece. One of the most noted archæologists of Athens gave us instruction in modern Greek, and helped us in our archæological researches. We were accompanied on a trip to Mycenæ and Corinth by one of the American missionaries, and our consul went with us to Thebes and Delphi. But after all we were left pretty much to ourselves, and were obliged to pick up here and there as we could the information which we needed, in order to make our stay in Greece more than the visit of a dilettante. No books existed which could serve as a fit introduction to the study of general archæology, epigraphy, ceramics, or numismatics, and the museums of the country were in a rude condition, the chief monuments of sculpture being gathered in sheds or in ruined temples, without scientific arrangement or catalogues. We were allowed to travel in central Greece only with an escort of soldiers for protection against brigands, and our safe return from an expedition through Bœotia and Phocis was deemed worthy of mention by our American minister in his report to the Department of State.

Now the student finds in Athens the handsome building of the American School of Classical Studies, well situated on the slope of Mt. Lycabettus, commanding a wide view—from Peloponnesus, around by the Acropolis to Mt. Pentelicus. This building is the natural headquarters of the American archæologists. The director of the school, Professor Richardson, after a score of years of experience of teaching Greek at Yale, at Indiana University, and at Dartmouth, and six years of residence in Greece, is well acquainted with the needs of our students, and well qualified to give them guidance and information. He also lectures on the history of Greek sculpture in the museums, illustrating his principles by the objects before his hearers' eyes. The professor of the school, Professor Emerson, who also has had long experience at home and abroad, conducts exercises in epigraphy and other branches of archæology. Dr. Hoppin, lecturer on Greek vases, has spent

part of each winter and spring at the School for the last five years, and has earned the right to speak with authority on his theme.

But the School does not design to keep each student occupied with lectures and lessons. The students are mature. Of the nine students of this year three have received the degree of Ph.D., and one other has studied for six semesters at German universities; only two are less than five years out of college, and these had graduate study at home before going to Greece. Thus the American student of classical archæology at Athens finds himself in a group of well trained men pursuing the same ends under competent guidance. But in addition to his countrymen and their school, he finds in Athens four other national schools of archæology—of France, Germany, Great Britain, and Austria—and he is admitted to their lectures and to the use of their libraries. The library of the American School now contains more than 3000 volumes, which have cost more than \$7000 in addition to gifts. The museums of Athens are now admirably arranged, and in certain departments are unrivaled in the world. Travel and exploration in Greece are not only safe, but far more convenient than ever before. One can breakfast in Athens, spend several hours at Mycenæ, and still reach Argos before night; or he may leave Athens in the morning and take supper at Olympia. Each spring, excursions are arranged for tours through Peloponnesus and among the Greek islands, under the direction of Dr. Dörpfeld, who of all men is best fitted to lecture on the ruins which are visited; and expeditions around Athens and in central Greece are planned for our students by their director.

Each of the other national schools in Greece is maintained by its respective government. The income of our own School at present is about \$7000, but only about \$2500 of this is derived from a permanent fund; the rest is contributed by twenty colleges and universities, but is unpledged, and hence is more or less uncertain. An effort is now making to add \$75,000 to the permanent fund of the School, and in this enterprise we desire, need, and deserve the sympathy and support of all friends of classical studies.

I should be glad to tell you of the excavations which have been conducted by the School at Thoricus, Plataea, Sicyon, Eretria, Icaria, the Argive Heraeum, and now at Corinth, in which important results have been achieved. The six volumes of Papers of the School also deserve mention as a part of its work.

Since the School's foundation in 1882, eighty-five students have been registered. Many of these are already established in places of wide influence and high honor. Former students of the School are now teaching in twenty-three states of our Union, in the District of Columbia, in the School of Classical Studies in Rome, and in the University of Athens in Greece. Probably no other institution with so small an amount of money has affected so deeply higher education, and especially classical studies, in our land. Its influence and development have been far greater and more rapid than was anticipated,

and we have full faith that the generosity of our countrymen will soon establish this School on an absolutely sure foundation.

The last address was by Professor Wm. Gardner Hale, who spoke on the work and mission of the American School in Rome:

There is one land in this prosaic world of ours, the mere name of which is always enough to stir the imagination. To the man who reads, even if he does not travel, the word Italy awakens countless memories of great deeds, of great art, and of great letters. What a land that is which contains the cities of Milan, of Verona, of Venice, of Ravenna, of Perugia, of Siena, of Florence, of Rome, and of Naples!

If Italy has this interest for the educated man in general how much more has it for us! Here was lived the life of the people to whose literature and history more than half of those who are gathered together in this conference are devoted. Here is the background of the life which we are studying, presenting the same aspect to our eyes today that it presented to the eyes of Virgil and Horace. Moreover, there is not a city of Italy that does not contain some actual remains of ancient or mediæval life—the monuments of men of early days—buildings, sculptures, articles of daily life, inscriptions, coins, manuscripts. None is so poor that it has not some of these things. But richest of all, of course, is Rome itself. Here, then, one would expect to find, for people like ourselves, and for others who are in training for the life which we are leading, all possible help in the reconstruction of ancient civilization. Yet until quite recently how different has been the actual fact. Until the autumn of the year 1895 the American student who went to Rome to reconstruct in his mind its ancient or its mediæval life found no organized help. Not only, accordingly, was discovery on the part of Americans out of the question, but even acquisition, beyond a smattering, was denied to all but the very few who could devote to their task a large amount of time and labor under the most unfavorable conditions. Meanwhile, young French and German students had had in organized and well-equipped schools all that our students had lacked.

All this is now changed. Three years ago, through the generosity of a number of public-spirited men and women in different parts of the country, an American school was established in Rome by the Archæological Institute of America, for the purpose of providing the desired opportunities for our young men and young women. As soon as possible it will, of course, have a permanent director, and even, possibly, a larger permanent staff. This was, however, out of the question at the outset, and accordingly the system with which the school at Athens had been obliged to content itself in its earlier days was adopted. American universities were asked to lend to the School the services of professors chosen by the Managing Committee, and in each

case consented, giving the professor leave of absence for a year upon partial salary. The men who have thus served have been, in the first year, Professor Arthur L. Frothingham, Jr., of Princeton University, and myself; in the second year, Professor Minton Warren, of the Johns Hopkins University, and Professor Allan Marquand, of Princeton University; and in the year now passing, Professor Clement L. Smith, of Harvard University, and Professor Richard Norton, of Bryn Mawr College. In the coming year it is expected that Professor Tracy Peck, of Yale University, will serve as director, and that a very competent archæologist will accept the Professorship of Archæology. Instruction has been given by the officers of the School in Archæology, both Pagan and Christian, in topography, in epigraphy, and in palæography. In addition the school has been able to secure the services of several well-known Roman and German archæologists, who have given to our students special courses, of which the expenses have been defrayed from the treasury of the school. Professor Marucchi, Curator of the Egyptian Museum at the Vatican, a recognized authority in early Christian antiquities, has given courses upon the Catacombs, in the Catacombs themselves; Professor Stevenson, Curator of Coins at the Vatican, and one of the two first experts in his field in Rome, has given, with the help of the rich material of the Vatican, a course in numismatics; Professor Mau, of the German Archæological Institute, the first living expert upon Pompeii, has given a course each year in Pompeii itself and at the Museum of Naples; and Professor Loewy, of the University of Rome, a well-known specialist in ancient sculpture, last year gave a course upon this subject in the Museum of Rome. As a matter of temporary convenience the members of the school were also admitted, in the opening year, to a course in palæography given at the Vatican by Professor Melampo, and, in the first two years, to a course in topography given by Professor Hülsen to students of the German Institute. In addition, the members of the school have been taken upon special excursions by Professor Lanciani, of the University of Rome, himself a member of the Managing Committee of the School, and one of its warm friends, and by Professor Helbig, the Government Curator of the Tombs and Museums of Corneto, and a well-known writer upon Etruscan Antiquities; and, finally, they have been admitted to the full privileges of the Vatican Library of Ancient Manuscripts by its accomplished head, Father Ehrle.

There have been, in the two years that are now closed, twenty students, all of whom were graduates of universities, and a considerable number of whom had already had from one to four years of graduate study, in American or European universities, before entering the school in Rome. These students have been of a high order of ability, and have done excellent work. In spite of the shortness of their stay in Rome the results of their activity, which will presently be published in the *American Journal of Archæology* (the official organ of the Institute and of the schools at Athens and Rome),

will demonstrate the soundness of the proposition that our young American scholars have the innate ability, not only to acquire from the work of others, but to advance the cause of learning, and that a training adequate to develop this power can be given them, if the financial means is provided.

All this is easily stated in cold words. What it actually means I should despair of explaining even to so sympathetic an audience as this. No one can understand what it is worth to the young scholar to spend a year in these surroundings, unless, as some of us who are here tonight have done, he has watched the operation, and has beheld with his own eyes the rapid growth of interest on the part of the happy student, the deepened sense of reality, the heightened power, and the formation of new, but never to be forgotten, associations of his work with the actual life of the past.

Now there are three things which I want to say very briefly before this great gathering of teachers with regard to the school in Rome. The first is that such an institution must be built upon sacrifices made by many men. We may sometime find rich donors who will give us a sure lease of life, but meanwhile we must go on with smaller contributions. There is no man so poor that he cannot give something to an enterprise of this kind. It is a striking consideration that if seven hundred and fifty out of the thousands of teachers of Latin in this country would give ten dollars each a year, the work of the school could be carried on with no outside help; or that, if this should seem to some a large amount, fifteen hundred teachers could carry it on with a yearly gift of five dollars each.

The second thing I want to say is that we all, teachers in schools and teachers in colleges alike, could render a service by pointing out to our ablest young men and young women the opportunities for work which the school presents, and planting in their minds the idea of preparing themselves for the possibility of it in their own case. The school offers Fellowships yielding a sum sufficient to enable one to live, under economy, with comfort. These Fellowships should be depicted as very precious prizes, and young people should be put in the way of getting ready for them.

Third, and hardly less important. There are few good teachers who are not valued in the places which they hold. If they are valued, it would not be difficult for them to obtain leave of absence for at least a part of a year. A teacher of Latin who has succeeded in putting a little something by could not spend it with greater profit to himself—either by way of making himself a more desirable man in his profession, or by way of enriching his own mental life—than by setting sail in some December for Italy, and going to the American School of Classical Studies for three months, if a longer period is impossible. The course in epigraphy probably will always begin in January, and be finished within the three months. At the same time that he is carrying on this course, the student I have in mind may be seeing Rome itself, looking not as one of our cities does in winter, but rather as in spring. If he

is wise enough to be a bicyclist he can, while carrying on his regular studies, make himself familiar with many famous places in the neighborhood of Rome, and give himself endless delight and a fresh lease of life at the same time. And when he returns to his work at home he will not only be a better and more desirable teacher, and a richer and happier man, but he will also be a staunch supporter of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome.

FRIDAY, APRIL 1

MORNING SESSION

This was the joint session of the Classical Conference and the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. Mr. E. C. Goddard, President of the Schoolmasters' Club, presided.

17. "Principles underlying the making of Courses of Study for Secondary Schools," by Geo. B. Aiton, State Inspector of High Schools for Minnesota, Minneapolis.

This paper is published in full. See pp. 369-378.

In the discussion that followed the reading of Mr. Aiton's paper, Principal John C. Hanna, of the East High School, Columbus, Ohio, took up the subject from the point of view of the high school; Principal Charles A. Smith, of the Michigan Military Academy, from the point of view of the private school; Principal R. G. Boone, of the Michigan State Normal College, from the point of view of the normal school; and Professor B. A. Hinsdale, of the University of Michigan, from the point of view of the university.

Principal Hanna's comments, in brief outline, were as follows:

There is great diversity of opinion on this subject. Even teachers differ radically, and sometimes angrily. This is unwise. If the teachers would agree, the world would agree. Let a spirit of reasonable concession pervade all such deliberations. Only thus can a sane and practicable conclusion be reached.

The requirements for entering the secondary schools may be considered fixed (with no Latin or algebra in the grammar schools) and the pupil who can meet these requirements is better equipped for life if he leaves then, than he could be by any other course.

A course in the secondary schools which, out of sixteen year units of study

gives to English four units, to Latin four units, to mathematics two units, to history two units, to science one unit, making thirteen units of required study, and leaves as electives, mathematics one unit, Greek three units, history one unit, modern languages two units, science one unit, making eight units of electives, out of which three units must be chosen — such a course ought to satisfy every demand of any college and at the same time ought to furnish a better equipment for any pupil who is not to go to college than he could obtain from any course composed largely of advanced college studies or of technical studies or of so-called practical studies.

The specialists in every direction might, with advantage, rally round a common center making the study of English the backbone of every course and adopting the following as a platform :

English shall be a required study every year throughout the primary and secondary schools.

English shall be the center and core, about which other studies may be arranged in their due proportion to satisfy all demands of the colleges and the ordinary demands of life outside the colleges.

The next speaker was Principal Charles Alden Smith :

By private school, in this connection, I understand to be meant an academy in connection with a college or university, and preparatory thereto, or a private or endowed institution doing preparatory work.

The principles underlying the courses of study for these schools are the same as those underlying the courses of study for any other secondary school, and I am glad to find myself in so hearty accord with those laid down in the admirable paper of Inspector Aiton.

The basal principle is a psychological one : (a) Given a student with his intellectual powers developed to a certain (or in a private school more likely an uncertain) degree, which we may call the first : (b) What stimuli shall we use to most fully develop these powers to another degree which we may call the second, more certain than the first because at present in education more clearly defined ?

These stimuli may be divided into four groups : (1) Language and literature ; (2) mathematics ; (3) science, biological and physical ; (4) history, civics, and economics.

The problem of the private school in the application of these lies especially in the first two years, on account of the unequal mental development of the students due to differences of age and previous training, the solution lying usually in two beginning Latin classes and two beginning algebra classes. The education of the first two years is an "evening up" process. The second principle of *articulation* and the third of *sequence*, I have no time to discuss. The fourth of *time values* has been well set forth in the paper. To sum up, we may recommend :

(a) Courses of study somewhat elastic, four years in length, to meet the demands of different natures.

(b) Three main studies daily through the year with English three times a week throughout the course, making eighteen recitation periods per week.

(c) The unit of credit a five-hour course, throughout the year, giving half-credits each semester.

Principal Richard G. Boone spoke from the point of view of the normal school :

Whatever the best college or university requires of high-school graduates the school for training teachers can safely accept. It is more important that candidates come to us with right habits of study than that they bring standings in any particular subjects. If they have a keen historical sense, they may, without irreparable loss, enter, having had no high-school training in English history, though this is among our prescribed subjects. One with literary taste and appreciation of discourse as a fine art may be safely admitted whose formal studies in literature fail to meet the requirements. Ability for sustained logical thinking is more necessary than any specific course in physics and mathematics.

The need felt for these and like results of high-school training, the normal school shares with all higher and special institutions.

But a few accepted principles may be briefly stated as conditioning the selection and arrangement of the matter of high-school courses.

1. They should be comprehensive of the generic classes of knowledge. Humanistic, realistic, language and mathematical subjects should receive in every high school their proportioned attention. Not equal consideration, indeed, but all as means and each after its importance.

2. The course should be so chosen as to include in every department chiefly type forms of knowledge. Our secondary courses might easily be reduced from one-fourth to one-half in certain departments by striking out altogether unimportant incidents, and putting upon the remaining points a properly proportioned valuation.

3. It is not to be understood that secondary courses are to be prescribed. I stand for large freedom in electives—regulated, guarded freedom. But throughout secondary courses the grouping should be somewhat closely prescribed, options being allowed within specified limits, and electives made along kindred lines.

The remarks by Professor B. A. Hinsdale will be published in full in the *SCHOOL REVIEW* for September.

18. "The Enrichment of the Classical Course in Secondary Schools," by Professor Clifford H. Moore, of the University of Chicago :

The theme on which I am to speak this morning shows signs of becoming somewhat worn, but the changes that have been made during the past few years may well encourage us to continue the discussion, for discussion is bearing fruit. I shall restrict myself to points on which I can use my own past experience as teacher in secondary schools, and I take as a basis for what I have to say, the four years' course in Latin, the three years' in Greek.

Attention has been directed hitherto to enriching our classical courses chiefly by securing a variety in reading. The pressure for this has never been so great in Greek as in Latin, but the practice of substituting for a part of the *Anabasis* selections from the *Hellenica* has worked well in schools which have not been able to read four books of the *Anabasis* and some *Hellenica* besides. The recommendation made here five years ago by the Conference in Greek that the *Odyssey* be preferred to the *Iliad* for school use deserves more consideration than it has yet received. The *Phæacian* episode, for example, has far greater human interest than the earlier books of the *Iliad*, and my experience has shown the wisdom of following the recommendation of the conference. Fortunately nearly all our better schools have adopted the plan of reading some easy Latin, such as *Gradatim* and *Viri Romæ*, as an introduction to the difficult Latin of Cæsar. It is hardly advisable in a four years' course to attempt to read selections from Eutropius or from Florus, as has sometimes been suggested, although these authors may be read to advantage in a six years' course.

The danger of a revolt against Cæsar which threatened us a few years ago, seems now to have passed away. We must recognize the fact that Cæsar is exceedingly interesting as soon as the difficulties of his language are overcome; yet the first four books of the *Gallic War* are by no means the most attractive. The two invasions of Britain, the expeditions into Germany, and the seventh book furnish more interesting and valuable reading than the earlier parts. Cæsar's statements as to the habits and customs of the Britons, the Gauls, and the Germans, are of more interest to the average child than the constant succession of campaigns, especially if the teacher can add from his own knowledge information given by other ancient writers and can sketch to his pupils the later history of these peoples in relation to Rome. Chaps. 11-28 of book VI should by no means be omitted; and children can be made to feel the dramatic quality of the account given in book VII of the last effort of the Gauls against absorption into the Roman Empire. I should urge, therefore, that these later books be read rather than the earlier, and I am confident that this change will prove a decided enrichment of the second year's work in Latin.

If time allowed, I should like to speak in favor of Sallust's *Catiline* and of selections from Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, in schools where their introduction will not crowd the Latin course, as well as urge that some parts of the last half of the *Æneid* be read, even at the cost of omitting the fifth book. How-

ever, all these questions have passed beyond the discussion stage; we are now in a fair way to determine by experiment what authors and what portions of authors are best suited for school use. For myself, I am convinced that we cannot make much advance by multiplying the number of authors read; we must rather turn our attention to reading more Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil. The same principle applies to Greek.

One of the simplest and surest means of enriching the classical course is the larger use of Latin and Greek composition. In spite of all that has been said on this subject, it is still true that insufficient time is devoted to it and it is often poorly taught. The result is that graduates of most schools are unable to translate simple English into Latin or Greek correctly, and naturally have an intense dislike for the task. If, however, as much translation of English as of Latin or Greek be required during the first six months of the student's study, and if exercises, not long or severe, be written three times a week throughout the course, a pupil will acquire the ability to translate simple English, and, furthermore, will do it with pleasure. Not only this, but he will have gained such a grasp of the language that he will be able to read far more than his neighbor, who has had little training in the translation of English. There is no means of teaching the syntax of Latin or Greek so effective as the writing of these languages; when this is practiced, the greater part of the usual questioning on syntax can be abandoned to the great relief of the pupil and teacher, thus giving time for more reading of text. If by enrichment of the classical course we mean the use of means to secure a better grasp on Latin and Greek, there is no surer method than the practice of composition in these languages.

I invite your attention, further, to a means of strengthening the classics in our schools which is often neglected, but which must be cultivated if our pupils are to get the proper results from their study. I mean the use, for illustration and instruction, of antiquities and history in the widest sense. We cannot insist too strongly that our business as teachers of Latin and Greek is to make our pupils understand Latin and Greek, but still if our pupils remain ignorant of the history and the civilization of the Greeks and Romans, they can have no vivid sense of antiquity as a living past, and the texts they read can have little meaning for them. It is true that most teachers aim to give instruction, apart from the formal study of history, in geography and mythology, and in connection with Cæsar and Cicero wish to teach military and constitutional antiquities, but I am convinced from the lack of knowledge displayed by graduates from our schools, that the pupils receive too little instruction in these supplementary lines. It is not enough to provide books, maps, and plans for the pupil; he must receive some instruction besides, or he will seldom use the means put at his disposal. The amount of time needed for this teaching is not great, but the teaching must be done with definite plan and intention.

In teaching geography, it is important that the ancient political divisions be placed in their relation to the modern. For example, it is interesting and valuable for a pupil to learn how Cisalpine Gaul, as governed by Cæsar, corresponded to the modern states of Italy, or how the Switzerland of today is related to the Roman provinces. It is desirable, further, that the outline topography of Rome be taught in connection with the study of Cicero. Schneider's Rome and a few photographs, *properly explained* by the teacher, will go far to make clear to a class the "lay of the land" in Rome. The plan of the Roman forum, contained in most school editions of Cicero, when carefully explained by the instructor, can be made the starting point for this particular study, and the pupil's knowledge enlarged from this center.

An elementary knowledge of military antiquities in connection with Cæsar and of constitutional antiquities in connection with Cicero must be gained by the pupil if he is to understand the text he is reading. It is not enough that the student read the introductions to school editions; the teacher must draw from his own knowledge of these subjects, which should be large enough to enable him to distinguish between what is essential and what is not, and then to interest his pupils in the important points.

Yet, after all, neither the art of war, nor constitutional antiquities, nor even mythology can ever have so much interest or value to our pupils as the study of daily life among the ancients. Unfortunately few schools have made a systematic effort to teach how the Greeks and Romans lived, how they were dressed, what and when they ate, how they were educated, amused themselves, traveled, etc. In the proposals made thus far there has been no suggestion of curtailing the time given to the languages themselves, but here it seems as if some demand for special time must be made. Yet a very moderate number of hours will prove quite sufficient for formal instruction; one hour a week for twenty weeks, divided between two school years will prove ample—indeed I have found that much can be done with a total of ten hours. This demand is not exorbitant, even if the moderate number 650 be taken as the total of recitation periods in a four years' Latin course. If one must limit himself to ten hours, I should suggest the following as a working scheme:

The family and marriage, 1 hour.

Education and dress, 1 hour.

House and furnishing, 2 hours.

Division of day and meals, 1 hour.

Trades and professions, 1 hour.

Country life and agriculture, 1 hour.

Amusements and travel, 1 hour.

Household religion, death and burial, 1 hour.

We have thus a total of nine hours, leaving one hour for further consideration of some subject in which the class is especially interested.

Even if the time can be obtained, the problem of providing the illustrative material necessary will seem to some a serious one. Yet the equipment in the form of books and photographs need be neither large nor expensive. To be concrete, I name what I consider necessary, restricting myself to the private life of the Romans: Two books, in addition to a good classical dictionary, like Seyffert's, are absolutely indispensable for every school; Schreiber's *Atlas of Classical Antiquities*, translated and edited by Anderson;¹ and Preston and Dodge's *Private Life of the Romans*. The latter book, in spite of certain obvious defects, is excellent for school use and should be in the hands of every pupil studying Latin. To these it is desirable to add Pellison's *Roman Life in the Time of Pliny*, an interesting book, although rather diffuse and gossipy. The translation of Guhl and Koner's *Life of the Greeks and Romans* is still valuable, although antiquated and much inferior to the sixth German edition; and Becker's *Gallus* has a permanent value. The list can be increased almost indefinitely, but the books necessary for a beginning can be procured by a school for less than \$10. It is unnecessary to speak here of the books the teacher will find valuable for his own study.

The number of photographs need not exceed one hundred, which can be obtained unmounted for eight francs a dozen.² The total expense, therefore, for the material equipment need not exceed \$35. Naturally this will be but a beginning, to which additions must be made as rapidly as may be possible; additional books, photographs, and lantern slides are all valuable, but we must constantly remember that a modest equipment, *if used*, is sufficient to give pupils an acquaintance with ancient life that will vivify all their study of the languages and of the political history of the Greeks and Romans as nothing else will. It is unnecessary to say that here as everywhere a properly trained teacher is of more importance than large material equipment. Much illustrative material is lying unused today in schools, because the schools do not possess teachers who are capable of using the means at their hands; but in the hands of a teacher who understands its meaning this material becomes a most valuable means of education, to say nothing of the pupil's increased interest in the texts he is reading. The fact is, a child has no setting for his Greeks and Romans until he has some idea, not simply of where, but how they lived; when he has some acquaintance with the manners and customs of ancient life, his Cicero and Cæsar and the poets are no longer figures in history but rather men who took a very active part in a living world.

While each teacher must decide for himself what are the best methods for

¹ For the full title of this and other books mentioned see the "List of books recommended for a High School Classical Library," by a committee of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1897. Price ten cents.

² The names of responsible dealers in photographs, and lists of other available illustrations, are given in the SCHOOL REVIEW for June 1895; see pp. 386-393, and footnote on p. 391.

him to pursue, I venture to say that experience has shown me that instruction by the teacher on each topic considered should precede study and recitation by the pupil. Each hour, then, will be divided between a short recitation on ground already covered and an informal lecture by the teacher on a new topic; after this instruction the pupil is prepared to read and study illustrations intelligently.

Doubtless many of you feel that this study of private life which I am advocating belongs under the head of history. With that feeling I agree most heartily. My only purpose has been to show that it is possible to give instruction in this subject even if the time for it must be taken from the hours assigned to the languages. But the study of private life must never obscure the main duty of the teacher and his class, which is to teach and to learn the languages. Everything else must always be secondary and subordinate.

To sum up, then, the points which I have wished to touch: we are already in a fair way to enrich the classical course by using a limited variety of reading and by increasing the amounts read; further advance is to be made by a more thorough use of Latin and Greek composition, by a better use of illustrative material in connection with the readings of texts, and especially by a study of the private life of the Greeks and Romans.

Dr. John E. Granrud, of the University of Michigan, opened the discussion with a plea for the study of Roman constitutional history:

The Romans distinguished themselves chiefly in the arts of war and government. It is in law and politics that they made their most original, characteristic, and valuable contributions to European civilization. They displayed an unsurpassed political capacity, and have exerted a paramount influence.

The political institutions of such a people are naturally important. They possess an additional value, because they were developed in so conservative a way, and were so vitally connected with the life of the people. Roman constitutional history became the framework of the history of Rome—the pillar around which the vine and ivy of the political, economic, and literary records are entwined.

Hence, a general knowledge of the constitutional history is indispensable to the student, if he is to understand the activities of the public men, the parties, the social and economic conditions of Rome. It helps also to explain the characteristics of Roman literature. It shows the conditions under which some branches of literature were developed. It is invaluable to the student of the Roman historians, an aid also in the study of Roman lawyers and statesmen, and even of the poets.

Can Roman constitutional history be introduced into the high school? If so, when and in what way should it be taught? The requirements in Latin

for admission to the leading universities are about the same now as ten years ago. But the teachers are far better qualified, and they have obtained better facilities for instruction. The present requirements can thus be met equally well in less time. The constitutional history would prove an aid in place of an addition. Every thorough student will spend considerable time in learning the meanings of technical political words and expressions. He would be assisted by a course of twenty-five lessons in Roman constitutional history. He would get a general outline, would be able to group the isolated facts and make them a permanent possession. He would read Latin with less difficulty, gain a fuller insight into Roman life and thought, and become more interested in Latin.

The constitutional history may be taught in connection with Roman history, general history, or the speeches of Cicero. The historical method makes the subject easier, more interesting, and useful. The logical method shows better the development of each institution. A combination of the two methods seems, therefore, the best.

The discussion was brought to a close by Mr. Lawrence C. Hull, of the Lawrenceville School:

It is not so important that we add to our present classical course, or that we employ illustrative aids in the work of the class room, as it is that we do thoroughly and well the work that is outlined.

As the character of the work in Greek depends in large measure upon the training that the pupil has received in Latin, great care should be taken to guard the approaches to the Latin course and to do with great thoroughness the work of the first year. No pupil should undertake the study of Latin till he has received a fairly complete course of training in technical English grammar, so that ordinary grammatical terminology and simple syntactical relations are quite familiar to him. It is unjust and harmful to both pupil and teacher to require of the Latin teacher that he shall teach the pupil both English and Latin grammar.

The work of the first year in Latin is the most vital in the classical course. If this year's work is well done, the remainder of the course rests upon a secure foundation; but if the forms are not well learned, and the ordinary rules of syntax mastered, the work of the following years is agony for both teacher and pupil.

In arranging a classical course, respect the great classics that have earned their prescriptive title to a place in the liberal training of every cultivated man or woman. Other authors besides Cæsar, Virgil, Xenophon, and Homer may be added to the course; but first of all retain and respect the great names. Cæsar will not be a *bête noir* for a pupil whose first year's course has been thorough.

Use illustrative materials judiciously. Maps, plans, or photographs can effectually enliven work; but they may also merely divert and distract.

Be ready to employ all helps that the latest scholarship can supply; but beware of labor-saving devices and the last exploited "fad." An educational nostrum is as dangerous as any other prescription without diagnosis.

The classical course will never yield its proper fruit till the use of "cribs" is effectually stopped. Such dishonesty ruins both character and scholarship. No other single influence today is doing so much to render nugatory our efforts to build up sound scholarship and genuine manhood.

Make the reverential study of English an indispensable part of every exercise. Insist that the classical text is understood as an expression of intelligent thought, and teach that no passage in a foreign tongue is really mastered till its meaning has been expressed in idiomatic English.

The classical course means much more than Latin and Greek. My plea for sound Latin training is a plea for the adoption of a life principle, not for a special method. The secondary course must teach industry and habits of concentrated study. Let us aim at reasonable symmetry. Let us be catholic in our attitude toward sound learning in any field. But let us try above all things to be honest and thorough. Modern languages, physical science, mathematics, English, physical culture, music, drawing, history, religious culture, must find recognition in a well-organized classical course. Such a comprehensive course should be anticipated and begun before the last four years of the pupil's life in a secondary school. If such articulation with the grammar-school course of study is impossible, the amount of Latin and Greek in the historical course must be diminished. Such a loss would be deplorable; but it would not be so lamentable as a promise and pretense of training which aims at so much that the result is a disappointment and a sham.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The presiding officer was Professor Thomas D. Seymour. Professor Seymour first called upon Professor Paul H. Saunders, of the University of Mississippi, for a brief report upon the remarkable progress of classical studies in that State.

Professor Saunders stated that in both Latin and in Greek, but especially in Greek, the progress within the last ten years had been decided. There had been no requirement for entrance to the Freshman Greek class at the University since 1892, as the preparatory department was then abolished and Greek was taught in but few of the secondary schools. An effort to introduce Greek into the public high schools and to make a requirement for entrance to the Freshman class was begun in 1895. This has resulted in Greek being introduced into many of the public high schools and in a two-

years' requirement for entrance to Freshman Greek in 1898. The Latin entrance requirement is three years of preparatory training. All the secondary schools in the state teach Latin, and most of them have a three or four years' course. Thirty-five of the secondary schools teach Greek, and they have, or will have, a two-years' course. The teachers of the state are taking an active interest in the work of advancing the study of the classics, and many are taking correspondence-courses in Greek in order to equip themselves for teaching it. The proportion of students taking the A.B. course at the University is unusually large. For the past three years it has been over 50 per cent., and there are two other undergraduate degrees of equal honor which do not require Latin and Greek, as does the A.B. The interest throughout the state in the classics is increasing, and the prospect for better, more thorough, and more appreciative work is very bright.

19. "Virgil's Place in the History of Philosophy," by Mr. J. S. Tunison, Cincinnati.

Mr. Tunison's paper set forth a theory as to Virgil's relation to the dominant thought of his times which in substance was as follows:

Virgil's times were those of a crisis in history. He and his Roman contemporaries knew this, though, of course, they did not consider it from any side except that of their own past and their own anticipations of the future. They were peculiarly fitted to take advantage of the circumstances, and it was their notion, expressed in almost so many words by Virgil, that only the Roman power was adequate to remedy the ills under which the world consciously suffered. Their fitness for their task of subduing and governing the world was due mainly to their capacity as a race for assimilating ideas from every quarter, making these their own in the fullest sense of the word. Virgil was strictly an embodiment of this eclectic spirit, all the more perfect because as a man of genius he could unite and vitalize what was for other Italians, even for Cicero, merely a congeries of useful opinions. It was important for Virgil, also, that his first view of all Roman ideas, even those which at Rome were deemed original, was a general view from without. He was from first to last an Italian farmer. His learning, certainly vast for his times, was harmonized with the ancient convictions of his class. Looking outward from this rustic point of view, he sees, what all others see, that the Roman state is rapidly advancing to a world-wide supremacy. But he also sees, or thinks that he sees, a deeper meaning in all this than a mere conquest of various races by a stronger race. We may divine his thought in his choice of a theme for his most important work and especially in his treatment of that theme at a crucial point. His choice of the Ænean saga was certainly not accidental, but rather the result of an historical evolution dating from the effort to account for the Persian War as a phase of the struggle

between East and West which began with the siege of Troy. The childish theory of Herodotus became the faith of the West. It colored all the legends of Trojan migration and gave to the vague tradition about Æneas an international significance.

The Persian War itself was almost forgotten. Yet it was from the era of Persian conquest that all the important philosophies of the world dated. In China, in India, in Egypt, in Greece, the misery and anxiety of the people apparently stirred them to profound thought. If they had not considered the deeper problems of individual and universal existence before, they dwelt on them now. On one point there was uniformity around the whole circle of Persian aggression. The speculations of men converged to the opinion that all diversity and conflict must mean a final unity. This opinion gave significance to fancies about the renewed life of men upon earth and about the periodical renewal of the world itself. These took a practical form as they spread westward. In Virgil's time men held that the period of the disembodied life of the soul could be determined with exactness, while the opinion that the world itself was a body with a soul had risen almost to the rank of a certainty.

In general the opinion seems to have been that the world decayed by reason of age and could only be rejuvenated after being destroyed. Virgil was not the first to see the needlessness of this minute analogy to human life, but he was perhaps the first to give adequate expression to the thought that the renewal of humanity was a spiritual, rather than a physical, fact. Here he came back to the earnest patriotism of his race. There was to be no period to the existence of Rome, but there was to be a renewal of Roman vigor in the periodical return of those souls which had made Rome great. This practical metempsychosis is vaguely taught in the *Georgics*; it is the burden of the Sixth *Æneid*, and it gives meaning to the vaticinations of the Fourth *Eclogue*. "The picture which he drew in that *Eclogue* has never been effaced from the minds of men. They have imagined it to be a true prophecy of Christianity. But his verses are really the final word of a philosophy centuries old, which had looked vainly for the solution of the problem of human life at large and in the individual through the transformations and destructions and renewals of personal and universal life. Men were now to see for the first time, with the eyes of a man of genius, that the dark sayings of the philosophers blindly groping after an ideal which they could not grasp, concealed a practical meaning, namely, that the perfecting of life was within the power of humanity as it stood. Time has shown that Virgil overestimated the value of Roman statecraft, that he took too roseate a view of the Roman character, and was too sanguine as to the benefits of the Roman dictatorship. But his formula was approximately correct. Change the sign of the unknown spiritual factor in it, and the world has been in solid agreement with it for almost two thousand years."

Mr. Tunison's paper was discussed by Professor R. M. Wenley, of the University of Michigan :

One cannot fairly offer anything in the nature of criticism upon Mr. Tunison's paper without first acknowledging its freshness, its unusual way of approaching Virgil, and its abundant suggestiveness. I should like to express the earnest hope that the larger whole, of which it forms a part, will see the light ere long. It is to be remembered also that such remarks as may be passed might very well receive modification were the considerations introductory to Mr. Tunison's view, and doubtless contained in his complete MS., now before us. On the whole, the essay seems to me to lack perspective. Two elements in Virgil are noted: the influence of environment—of "Roman-ness"—and that of much anterior speculation in philosophy so-called. The argument suffers mainly because the latter is pushed to the detriment of the former. Virgil appears to be placed on the pedestal of a philosophical method, derived from the unphilosophical elements in previous speculation, and, from this vantage, he surveys the great movements of his age. This position cannot be maintained. The poet was doubtless influenced consciously by Stoicism in his conclusion that the world-soul is master, the souls of individual men, prisoners. But anything in the nature of a reasoned speculative method is conspicuous by its absence. Philosophical elements or factors in plenty, often mutually contradictory, too, lie scattered about; but of philosophy as such one finds hardly a trace. Virgil *feels* the eternal in the city, and furnishes forth a pictorial, not a fundamental, interpretation. His originality, like his *quasi* philosophy, must be sought in his unification of the sense of past defects with the certainty of present accomplishment. Hitherto, sorrow and civil strife and men's varied troubles had served to obscure the cosmic order; and, as a consequence, it had remained mysterious, and seemingly inexplicable in its ruthlessness. Virgil finds justification for all this in the Roman world-polity. To this end the whole creation had groaned and travailed in pain; and now, take it for all in all, the consummation furnishes the justification of the long toil of ages. Means and end fit one another. Fundamental philosophy hardly enters into this unification, which is primarily ethico-political. In short, Virgil has no interest in the nature of the universe as such, but every appreciation of the semi-ethical, semi-political order *qua* Rome. The key to such reflective elements as he possesses lies neither in a system, nor in fragments of systems, but in the poet's femininity, a quality hitherto unexampled in classical literature. Men must bear their burdens steadily, and lack of individuality can be justified. For, only as they lose their own lives do men gain the whole world—the whole whole world being Roman hegemony. That is, the unity which imparts the air of philosophy stands rooted in social and political movements, rather than in metaphysical principles. In other words, Virgil is no philosopher, because with him

apotheosis (of Empire) justifies the world-order, and so, like all poets, he takes the contingent picture for the entire truth. And this means he is guilty of the tacit assumption that the known is an emanation from the unknowable. Yet, the unity which so impresses him, which makes him oftentimes so like a philosopher, and renders his note startlingly modern on occasions, is a unity for the philosopher proper just because apotheosis *breaks* its oneness. Apotheosis is an incident of the possibility of explanation, not explanation itself; for the unity, to be a unity, must be self-explanatory. Had Virgil known this, Aristotle would no more have remained the master of those who know; but the world would have lost the *Æneid*.

20. "The Recently Discovered Poems of Bacchylides," by Professor Paul Shorey, of the University of Chicago.

After a few introductory remarks Professor Shorey translated several selections in a delightful manner, and read a number of verses in the original to illustrate the poet's use of meters.

21. "Exegetical Notes to Tacitus," by Professor Albert Gudeman, of the University of Pennsylvania.

This paper will be published in full in *Philologus*.

22. "The Ethical Value today of Plato's *Republic*," by Professor Abby Leach, of Vassar College.

The thesis of the *Republic* is that righteousness is the fulfillment of man's nature; that the moral perfection of a man is the perfection of his whole being, physical, mental, and moral; the normal development of his normal self, realization of nature's plan for him; in short, as Plato says in 444, "Virtue is the health and beauty and well-being of the soul, and vice the disease and weakness and deformity of the same."

Plato's insistence upon moral training from earliest childhood, and upon the beauty of a perfect moral life, is what we need to lay to heart and act upon today.

Plato bases morality on knowledge of the truth, and claims that the knowledge of the eternal, invariable, unchangeable, the vision of the divine pattern, alone gives the perfect moral life (484, 479). The most careful training, physical, mental, and moral, is indispensable for this knowledge; clear thinking and right action are linked together. Only the purest and noblest works of art and literature should surround the young from the earliest childhood, and they should be kept in right paths until old enough to be taught principles of right living, so that they can follow safely the leadings of their own hearts (401, 560).

Plato closely associates the individual with the state, and demands for

the perfect man the perfect state. Unquestionably people are greatly influenced by public opinion, and it is well-nigh impossible for individuals to maintain high moral principles in a community that has low moral standards and where corrupt political methods prevail. In 492 and 488 is given a striking picture of our political life, and also in 493.

Our remedy must be Plato's remedy, viz., make the best and wisest the rulers, and shut out the rest (473). For such rulers, highly endowed by nature, thoroughly trained and tested in every way, with a clear vision of the truth in their souls, will enter upon the work of guiding the state, not for private advantage, but for the good of the whole (521, 540). Inequality of gifts must be recognized, and each accorded the place and training for which nature designed him. The rank and file can never attain a high degree of virtue of themselves, and so need to be under the guidance and sway of the noblest in social and political life alike. Moral excellence should be sought, not from the base motives of reward or penalty, of respectability or disgrace, of honor or dishonor, but with the firm conviction that the best and most just man is also the happiest, and he most royal and a king over himself (580). Plato's *Republic* is a powerful plea for the claims of the soul to be recognized, and a protest against subordinating the highest self to the lowest and to material ends.

23. "Notes on Homeric Meter,"¹ by Professor Edward Bull Clapp, of the University of California.

Dactyls are far more numerous than spondees in Homer. Leaving out of consideration the sixth foot in each verse (which is always a metrical spondee), we find that 75 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the first five feet are dactyls and 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ are spondees; but since the fifth foot is conventionally a dactyl, we may confine the comparison to the first four feet, and in these the dactyls are 70 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of the whole number of feet. Of the 3574 verses in Books XIX-XXIV 798 contain no spondee beside the sixth foot; 1613 contain one spondee beside the sixth foot; 1084 contain two spondees beside the sixth foot; 241 contain three spondees beside the sixth foot; 17 contain four spondees beside the sixth foot; 1 (XXIII, 221) contains five spondees beside the sixth foot. The dactyl prevails in the first foot in the ratio of 65 to 35; in the second foot in the ratio of 61 to 39; in the third foot in the ratio of 85 to 15; in the fourth foot in the ratio of 72 to 28; in the fifth foot in the ratio of 95 $\frac{1}{4}$ to

¹ The material contained in this paper was collected to form the basis of a metrical appendix to the author's edition of Books XIX-XXIV of the *Iliad*, to be published in the College Series of Greek Authors (Ginn & Co., 1898). In everything pertaining to Homeric usage the author has depended solely on his examination of Books XIX-XXIV in the Dindorf-Hentze text; but when the practice of other poets has been cited for comparison, Ludwich's *Aristarchs Homerische Textkritik* has been followed.

4¾. The spondee, then, is most frequent in the second foot; a little less frequent in the first foot; still less in the fourth; very much less in the third; and is found in the fifth foot in only 181 out of 3574 verses. Of the 181 spondaic verses, 99 end in a word of four syllables; 43 in a word of three syllables; 6 in a word of five syllables; 5 in a word of three syllables plus an enclitic; 3 in a word of three syllables.

The most frequent verse-forms in XIX–XXIV are: (*d* = dactyl; *s* = spondee) *ddddds*, 21 per cent.; *dsddds*, 16 per cent.; *sddddds*, 14 per cent. Thus more than half of all the verses fall under three out of the thirty-two possible arrangements of dactyls and spondees. In Virgil, we may note only 8 per cent. of the verses are included under these three forms — the prevailing forms in his poems being *ds ss ds* (15 per cent.), *ds ds ds* (11 per cent.), *dds ds* (11 per cent.). Of Homeric verses only 9 per cent. fall under these favorite Virgilian forms.

With regard to cæsuras and diæreses, differences of opinion may arise as to where the pause is to be made in a particular verse; but it is plain that the most important pauses will usually coincide with the punctuation, and as a slight contribution to the subject the following table is presented of the location of marks of punctuation in Books XIX–XXIV (*c* = cæsura, *d* = diæresis, *m* = masculine, *f* = feminine, *I* = first foot, etc.):

I <i>c</i>	I <i>d</i>	II <i>c</i>	II <i>d</i>	III <i>cm</i>	III <i>cf</i>	IV <i>c</i>	IV <i>d</i>	V <i>c</i>
80	330	287	2	480	440	149	500	7

The reader sees that the two cæsuras in the third foot, if taken together, easily outweigh the pauses in any other part of the verse; but he may be surprised to learn that the marks of punctuation at the close of the fourth foot (the bucolic diæresis) outnumber those at any other single place. About two-fifths of all the verses contain no mark of punctuation.

In no less than two thousand places in XIX–XXIV, according to the Dindorf-Hentze text, a word ending with a vowel is followed in the same verse by a word beginning with a vowel. In more than four hundred of these instances the hiatus is only apparent, *i. e.*, the second word once began with a consonant. In sixty-one instances a vowel has already been elided from the first word. In 1122 cases, the hiatus is termed “weak,” since the long vowel or diphthong at the close of the first word loses half of its quantity. In forty-one cases the final vowel of the first word is *i* or *u*, which seems to have generated a *y* or *w* sound, which has served to fill the hiatus. In more than one hundred other instances, the offense of the hiatus is removed by a marked pause in the thought occurring between the two words. After these deductions 221 cases of hiatus remain which may be termed irregular, but 175 of these fall at a masculine cæsura where the ictus of the rhythm may be supposed to give the long vowel firmness to resist shortening; and fourteen of the remaining forty-five cases of illicit hiatus occur at the feminine cæsura of the third foot, where a pause is very frequently made.

Homer has no such objection to a monosyllable at the close of the verse as was felt by Virgil, and employs it twice as frequently as the Roman poet—not reckoning enclitics. Over against his willingness to close the verse with a monosyllable, may be set his fondness for a longer word in the same position. More than one-fifth of his verses end with a word of four or more syllables.

24. "The Use of Translations," by Professor Karl P. Harrington, of the University of North Carolina.

There is a dangerous tendency among students to overestimate the importance of covering ground as compared with that of undergoing training. This tendency, seen in all branches of study—mathematics, science, ancient and modern languages, composition—leads many students of the classics to resort to the use of literal translations in the preparation of their assigned lessons, at a point in their course before they have achieved ripe scholarship in the classic languages.

The professors of Latin in twenty-five leading colleges and universities in different parts of the country were asked their opinions concerning this practice in required Latin classes, with the following results :

1. Of those who ventured an opinion as to the proportion of those so using translations, half estimate it at one-half, or more, of the members of such classes, while the others vary in their estimates, from one in three, to one in ten.

2. Only one cordially recommends the regular use of translations, while an overwhelming majority earnestly deprecate the practice.

3. Of many means employed to prevent such use of translations the favorite ones seem to be, advice, moral suasion, close questioning on grammatical and other details, emphasizing of sight-reading, and the reading of such works or selections as are least accessible in translation.

4. In addition to the foregoing but few methods were suggested, such as, setting the kind of examinations which those who have relied upon translations cannot pass, and the requirement of intelligent reading of Latin without translation.

It appears, therefore, that there is an evil of some magnitude, which is probably decreasing in some places and increasing in others, with no very general agreement on the part of instructors as to the best way of meeting it. The American extreme of mental and moral personal liberty, of which the wide freedom of election accorded to very immature students is only one manifestation, is partly responsible. But we cannot treat our Freshmen and Sophomores like German university students. Even good translations should be seldom recommended to young students, because they are almost sure to use them injudiciously, in the rush of our modern American college life. And this use of translations is apt to neutralize the excellent English training to be gained from independent, self-reliant translation by the student.

Classical instructors should unite in an effort to minify the evil by such methods as the following :

1. Careful explanation to classes of the bad results of the practice, and a statement that students are not expected to resort to it.
2. Laying a good deal of stress in the class room on other things than translation.
3. Setting the translation part of examinations from passages not before seen by the student.
4. So far as possible, the use of such books, and such changes of books, as will discourage the practice.
5. Constant effort to awaken and maintain an enthusiastic interest in the study of the language and all that that implies.

25. "The Olympic Games in 1896," by Professor Sidney G. Ashmore, of Union University.

That aspect of the games, which, as I think, ought to commend itself chiefly to the world at large, is the archæological. The literature of the ancient Greeks is no longer the only witness that has reached us to testify to the qualities of heart and mind which characterized that wonderful race. Classical scholarship has now entered upon a new era, and a relatively novel field of research—a field so full of realism, so vividly suggestive of the personal, active, efficient life and vitality of antiquity, that there is danger rather that we shall cultivate it at the expense of the literature, than that we shall fail to appreciate its importance, or turn an indifferent ear to its teachings. To the specialist in classical philology, archæology is, so to speak, the other handle to his science. It is true that the writings of an Æschylus or a Sophocles must still be carefully studied, and critically examined; but the remains of the theater in which their dramas were enacted must also be studied, and, so far as possible, mentally reconstructed where they lie, on the southeastern declivity of the hill of the Acropolis, before we can quite understand the effect which those dramas produced on the minds of the assembled Greeks. The orations of Cicero may ring in our ears like those of Webster or Burke, but a thorough examination of the Roman forum within the limits of recent excavations will add much to their meaning and interest. The Olympian odes of Pindar have been edited and explained by the very best of commentators in Germany and America; yet the most skillful of interpreters must have recourse to the spade of the archæologist if he would do full justice to the subjects of that poet's muse.

What wonder, then, that as archæologists we should have sought to restore the ancient stadion, and to reproduce there, under a Greek sky and amid Greek scenery, the famous festival of the Olympic games—a festival that, for upwards of one thousand years, exercised a most potent influence upon the character, fortunes, and religion of the whole Hellenic race, from

Marseilles and Sicily on the west to Antioch and even Trebizond on the east, and from Cyrene to Epidaurus and Corfù.

Now the restoration of the stadion at Athens was not so difficult a matter as at first it might appear.

The depression between two hills, where the old stadion lay, was but slightly changed from what nature first had made it, and recent excavations had laid bare the remains in stone and marble, which marked the lines of the ancient structure. The original stadion, built by Lycurgus in the fourth century B. C., had been replaced five hundred years afterwards by one of far greater magnificence, erected through the munificence of Herodes Atticus, whose name is connected with the restoration of public buildings in many parts of Hellas. Ancient writers speak of the new stadion as a work surpassing all marvels, by which they refer particularly to the carvings and sculptured decorations with which Herodes Atticus adorned it. Now what became of these marble seats and sculptures? The excavations made on the spot in 1869 ought certainly to have revealed them. Instead of the stadion of Atticus, however, they revealed three lime-kilns—a fact that furnishes a sad but sufficient answer to the question. Only enough of the old marble remained to show where the seats had rested and to make it possible at the recent revival to place new material on the old foundations.

That the means might not be wanting for this, a patriotic citizen, George Avéroff by name, came forward like a second Atticus and promised the necessary funds, and the work was finally completed in Pentelic marble, although at the time a large part of the cavea had to be finished hurriedly in wood that it might be ready for use at the opening of the festival.

The determination to call the games Olympic may seem a trifle inaccurate. They might more correctly have been termed Panathenaic, in allusion to the festival held every four years at Athens. But apart from many other considerations, the greater celebrity of the Olympic festival would alone justify the application of the name to the revival of athletic contests anywhere on the soil of Greece; especially so if those contests were intended to be arranged on the largest possible scale of magnificence, and to be essentially of an international and cosmopolitan character. Moreover Olympia is now a place insignificant in size, and wholly inadequate to the accommodation of a large number of visitors, or of any visitors at all; and as in ancient times it consisted mainly of a collection of temples, statues and public buildings, so now the spot is marked by little else than the ruins and fragments of those very buildings which German zeal in archæological research has unearthed from the accumulations of the intervening centuries.

In short, Athens, and Athens alone, would serve the purpose. Let us then imagine ourselves already seated in the stadion at Athens awaiting the commencement of the games. It is Friday, the fifth and last day of

the sports. The exercises have been in progress since the previous Monday ; the day before that, which was Easter, having been celebrated by the unveiling of the statue of Avéroff, at the entrance to the stadion. The king gives command that the games shall proceed, but omits the elaborate formalities with which the actual opening on the previous Monday had been attended.

One cannot but be impressed by the spectacle, and the illustration it affords of the changes wrought by time in men's ideas. A Christian king presides at the revival of a pagan festival, which fifteen centuries before had been suppressed because it was pagan by a Christian emperor ; and a Christian preacher, the celebrated Dominican, Père Didon, is reported to have delivered a eulogy on pagan Greece, a country once regarded as the source of all iniquity by the Christian world.

But to return to the games. There stand the athletes of the several nationalities. Greece, Switzerland, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, England, Australia, and the United States are all represented. It is 3 o'clock in the afternoon. The various events are in progress, and result, with scarcely an exception, in victory for the stars and stripes. Meanwhile, one's interest in the events of the arena is frequently interrupted by a curious restlessness on the part of the spectators. The people, at intervals, rise in their seats and cast uneasy glances towards the entrance. It is Marathon Day, and the fact is well known that at 2 o'clock began the great race from Marathon to Athens. The Greeks have not looked for much success for their own country. Unlike their namesakes of antiquity, they are novices in the matter of athletic sports. But one event above all others they feel that they cannot afford to lose — the long-distance run from Marathon. It may seem strange that Greek feeling should be so intense about a matter that after all could signify little in itself. One must realize the strength of Greek patriotism to appreciate it, and observe the interest and pride that the nation takes in its past. The great age, and all the relics and reminders of that age, are sacred in the national mind. It is on these that Greece plumes herself, and one of the precious remnants of that age is the memory of the victory at Marathon. The defeat of the Persians was announced to the Athenians by a soldier who ran the forty kilometers, or twenty-five miles, on the day of the battle, and the race we are speaking of is a reminder of that event. It is handed down in the annals of the nation that the ancient runner, when he reached his goal, exclaimed : *χαίρετε νικῶμεν*, "rejoice : the victory is ours," and fell dead ; and it is said that many a young Greek, could he have won the race in 1896, would have been willing to lose his life in the effort.

Eighteen contestants have entered, and it is afterwards learned that an American, a Frenchman, and an Australian have each been in the lead, and that all have succumbed to the strain. The desire is universal that a Greek

shall win. A young Englishman sitting near me responded sympathetically when I told him my thoughts on the subject.

Suddenly there is a commotion among the horsemen on guard at the entrance. The spectators rise and again strain their eyes in the direction of the road to Marathon. A cannon shot is heard — the signal that the first man is approaching. As the runner enters the stadion, he is seen to be wearing the short, white kilt of the Greek peasant. The people are truly wild with delight. Men shout, women weep, and the band strikes up the national anthem, while Prince George goes to meet the young hero, and runs with him the full length of the stadion. The two halt before the royal platform. The crown prince embraces the youth, and the king, taking him by the hand, thanks him publicly for having done so well for his country.

The name of the young Greek is Spyridion Louēs. He was twenty-four years old and the son of a peasant farmer of Marousi, a village not far from Athens. He accomplished the distance of twenty-five miles in two hours, fifty-eight minutes, and fifty seconds, over a road the reverse of smooth, and under circumstances that might have tried the pluckiest and bravest.

At the formal distribution of prizes, which took place on the Wednesday following the great race, the stadion was well filled with spectators, though not crowded as on the previous Friday. The king and other dignitaries were in their accustomed seats, within the sphendonē. As everybody knows, the olive branch was the chief if not the only reward of victory in ancient times; and the spirit of the present occasion would scarcely have submitted to any wide departure from this rule. At Olympia there was once a quadrangular enclosure of peculiar sanctity, called the Altis. Within it stood many works of Hellenic art — the most exquisite, perhaps, in Greece. Among them were the temples of Zeus and Hera and the treasure houses of many Hellenic states, besides innumerable statues of those victors in the Olympic games who had preferred to be represented in marble by Phidias rather than to be celebrated in song by Pindar. Alas for the frailty of human judgment! The marbles have perished. The odes of Pindar still live. Within the Altis also there was gathered the sacred olive branch, the prize and token of victory. So now, as in the olden time, branches of the olive have been cut within the sacred precincts of the Altis, and these are brought to Athens for distribution among the victors. As the king steps forward to present the token, he takes the young athletes by the hand and addresses to them words of eulogy and compliment. The athletes then form in line, and, according to ancient custom, march in procession around the arena, with banners and branches waving. Spyridion Louēs is at their head. This marks the close of the first celebration of the new Olympiad. All parties and nations agreed that it was a success, and no man was more pleased and gratified than the king.

The question whether the next celebration of the Olympic games shall take place in Greece or in one of the great capitals of Europe has agitated the minds of the international committee. It has even been proposed that the games should be held in New York. But it is the wish of King George, expressed at a breakfast given to the athletes in the palace, that his country should be fixed upon as the continuous and abiding field of this time-honored festival. The king's views are those which, in the opinion of all disinterested, not to say art-loving persons, ought surely to prevail. The impediments presented to the realization of these views, in consequence of the present unhappy state of the country, must unfortunately carry weight with the committee upon whose judgment the decision of the matter rests. But let us hope, at least, that in spite of these impediments, the means may be found to repeat this quadrennial festival of antiquity, not in Paris, London, or even in New York, but on its native soil, under the brilliant sun of Attica, and in the arena upon which we may now look down from the marble steps of the stadion of Avéroff.

26. "An Unpublished Greek Metrical Inscription," by Professor M. L. D'Ooge, of the University of Michigan.

Professor D'Ooge presented a facsimile of a fragmentary Greek metrical inscription, found at Pozzuoli, a squeeze of which was recently brought from Italy by Dr. Walter Dennison. Professor D'Ooge's restoration, together with a restoration proposed by Comparetti, will soon be published, with other inscriptions copied and edited by Dr. Dennison, in the *American Journal of Archæology*.

The following resolution was presented and passed unanimously:

Resolved, That the Classical Conference desires to place on record the expression of its high appreciation of the admirable preparation made for its meetings by the committee of arrangements, and of its thanks for the warm and generous hospitality exercised towards its members by the ladies and gentlemen of Ann Arbor.

The session closed with an address by Professor Andrew F. West, on The True Spirit of Classical Culture. The address will be printed in full later.

EVENING SESSION.

The exercises opened with a paper on Greek music, by Dr. Charles William Seidenadel, of the University of Chicago.

This paper will be published in full in the SCHOOL REVIEW for September.

The following musical programme, consisting chiefly of the remains of ancient Greek music, was then rendered :¹

1. Hymn to Apollo—Accompaniment by Gabriel Fauré. Gardner S. Lamson, University School of Music, Ann Arbor.

2. (a) Hymn to the Muse Calliope—Harmonized by Gevaert. (b) Hymn to Nemesis—Harmonized by George Macfarren. Alice Bailey, University School of Music.

3. (a) Fragment of the First Pythian Ode of Pindar—Harmonized by A. A. Stanley. (b) The Dirge of Sicilus—Harmonized by A. A. Stanley. (c) Hymn to Helios—Arranged by Gevaert. Mr. Lamson.

4. Prayer to Fortune (Horace, Od. I. xxxv.)—F. W. K. Harmonized by A. A. Stanley. Mr. Lamson, Miss Bailey, and Chorus.

5. Chorus, "Oh great are the depths" (From "St. Paul")—Mendelssohn. Choral Union (300 voices). A. A. Stanley, conductor. L. L. Renwick, organist.

The musical programme, which was received with many evidences of appreciation, was finished shortly after nine o'clock. A reception was then held in the Waterman gymnasium by acting-President and Mrs. Hutchins and the Faculty of the University for the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club and the two associations which by invitation of the Club were meeting in Ann Arbor at the same time, the Classical Conference and the Michigan Academy of Sciences. About eight hundred were present at the reception, which passed off pleasantly.

¹ As several inquiries have been received for works dealing with the remains of Greek music, it has been thought best to add a few references to the more accessible recent literature: GEVAERT, *Histoire et théorie de la musique de l'antiquité* (2 vols., Gand, 1875, 1881); GEVAERT, *La mélodie antique dans le chant de l'église latine* (Gand, 1895; the fragments of Greek music discovered since the publication of the former work are treated in two appendices); K. VON JAN: *Musici scriptores Græci* (Leipzig, 1895; remains of ancient music collected at the end of the volume); CRUSIUS, *Die Delphischen Hymnen* (in "Philologus," 1894, also published separately); TORR, *On the Interpretation of Greek Music* (London, 1896, 26 pp.); JOHNSON, *Musical Pitch and the Measurement of Intervals among the Ancient Greeks* (Baltimore, 1896; thesis); HOWARD, *The αὐλὸς or Tibia* (in "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology," Vol. IV). Novello, Ewer & Co. [London and New York] publish several of the Greek fragments with modern notation and an English translation; and the best of the hymns discovered at Delphi has been harmonized and published with a German translation, by Thierfelder [Leipzig, 1896].

It is probably too early to foretell how far the influence of the Classical Conference will extend. It is, however, safe to assert that at no previous meeting of classical teachers have the different sections of the country, North, South, East, and West, come so closely into contact; and that the Committee of Twelve and the auxiliary committees have, by face-to-face inquiry and discussion, gained a much deeper insight into the conditions of our classical education, taking the country as a whole, than could have been gained from answers to circulars or correspondence merely. That the Conference brought encouragement and fresh inspiration to many cannot be doubted, in view of the cordial expressions that have reached the Programme Committee; and one might easily believe that it marks a distinct advance toward the attainment of that mutual understanding which must precede all successful effort to bring the classical instruction of the country to a uniformly high plane of excellence.

The committee under whose auspices this Conference was held would not wish to have the report of the proceedings brought to a close without an expression of grateful acknowledgment to those who kindly consented to take a place on the programme, to those who came as delegates from educational associations and institutions near and far, and to all others who by their interest and efforts contributed to the success of the meeting.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY,
For the Programme Committee

ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN,
April 15, 1898